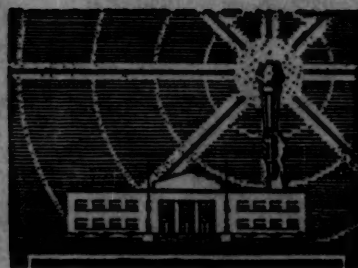


# THE SOCIAL STUDIES

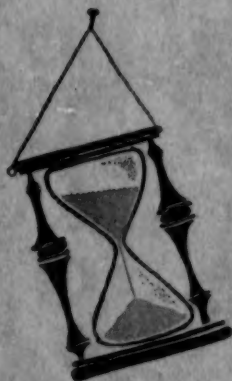


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# The Social Studies

VOLUME L, NUMBER 1

JANUARY, 1959

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## As the Editor Sees It

It is with, we feel, pardonable pride that **THE SOCIAL STUDIES** commemorates its first half-century with this issue, Volume 50, Number 1. As individuals we are sometimes reluctant to face this milestone in our personal chronologies; but institutions, businesses and organizations welcome it, boast of it, and look cheerfully and hopefully ahead to a centennial. So it is with **THE SOCIAL STUDIES**. With this volume we felicitate ourselves on the past; with Volume 51 we will look ahead and hope for another fifty years of association with the profession of social studies teaching.

We hope that the lead article this month will prove of interest to those of our readers who would like to know why the magazine was started and how it developed over the years. We think too that the reproduction of the first page of the first issue will have some historical and sentimental interest.

Bound files of periodicals and newspapers are of course a permanent gold mine for the historical researcher. They are also a never-ending source of pleasure for the casual reader with an appreciation of the past. There he can watch the unfolding of history and events with a wisdom far greater than those who wrote could have, for he possesses in effect the gift of prophecy. He can enjoy the sensation of reading the work of a young and aspiring author and know whether or

not his name will become famous. He can enjoy the finely-reasoned polemic of some writer with a purpose, and know with certainty whether his program would be called sound by the judgments of posterity. The reader thus possesses a sort of god-like omniscience as he browses through old files of periodicals, a quality which he markedly lacks in his contemporary activities.

These satisfactions can be enjoyed in a perusal of the forty-nine earlier volumes in our files. There are names of contributors who have been or became nationally known leaders in the social studies field; and valuable contributions on topics which were once burning issues and seem less important now. We note with interest that the early articles on methods of teaching social studies would not be considered out-dated by sound teachers today. On the other hand, discussions of the content of courses in ancient history or English history in the secondary schools have a distinct impression of age about them.

The matters which comprise the teaching fields in social studies are probably more subject to change over the years than those of any other academic discipline. So we feel there will never cease to be a need for a periodical to reflect these changes and to provide social studies teachers with a forum. We expect to continue to meet these needs as best we can in the next half century.



# The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume 1.  
Number 1.

PHILADELPHIA, SEPTEMBER, 1909

\$1.00 a year  
15 cents a copy

## THE MAGAZINE.

Editorial comment upon the plans for the conduct of the MAGAZINE is unnecessary. A general statement of the character of the paper will be found on the first page of the cover, and a list of the editors is given on the second page. Professor McLaughlin's letter shows the existing need, and the field which the paper should occupy. But the best introduction to their fellow teachers of history and civics which the editors can have, is to be found in the nature of the articles printed in this number. It has been the aim to make these articles stimulating, leading to higher professional standards; to make them practical, leading to valuable suggestions for the conduct of history classes; and to have them conduce to the formation of a stronger union, a better *esprit de corps*, among history teachers.

## THE HISTORY TEACHER.

Leaving normal school, college, or graduate school, the young teacher of history, if he or she is fortunate enough to get a chance to teach his own subject at once, enters a high school, or small college, where, in many cases, he is permitted to work out his own pedagogical salvation. From alma mater he has brought a knowledge of certain methods of history teaching practised upon him by his own instructors, together with detailed information respecting several narrow fields of human history. Rarely has he received in college or graduate school any intimation of the best methods to be pursued in secondary school history teaching. Rarely does he in his new position receive much inspiration or advice concerning his actual class work from his administrative superiors.

Left to his own resources, often losing contact with his former instructors and intellectual leaders, he may lose energy, ambition, outlook, and become at last a dreaded teacher of a dreadful subject.

On the other hand the young teacher, if he succeeds, keeps in contact with the best thought in his profession, and grows as the profession grows. He will seek the acquaintance of other and more experienced history teachers, as a business man must be acquainted in his own line of business; he will keep in touch with new historical works, the latest reviews and magazines; and, if he can do it without sacrificing his duty to his class, he will engage in some original historical work. But best of all, he will remain a good teacher, opening the doors upon vistas which will delight and lure the student into many an untraveled intellectual path.

## THE OPENING DAYS OF A HISTORY COURSE.

There is no more important time in the whole year's work than the first few class exercises. In these days administrative details are to be attended to, new students are coming in late, the weather is hot, and the students are unaccustomed to study; all these and many other distractions tend to prevent the smooth running of the class work. There is a temptation to laxness both on the part of student and of instructor; and many a good instructor's work is made more difficult in the next few weeks because he and his class did not begin right. Instead of alighting the work of these opening days, the teacher should treat it more carefully, and plan it more definitely than any other part of the course.

In the first place the teacher must be sure to make a good impression upon his class in the opening days,—a good impression not in the purely personal sense, but in the pedagogical sense of winning respect for his position, maintaining the dignity of his subject, and awakening the interest of his students. Such a good impression is to be gained not by amusing the students, nor by witty cynicisms, nor by severe discipline alone. There must be a combination of tact and strength, of sympathy and precision; above all there should be nothing in the dress, attitude, or language of the teacher which will lead the students to ridicule him.

Secondly, the opportunity should be taken in the opening days to impress clearly upon the class the character of the work to be required of them. There should be a frank understanding between teacher and scholar upon the methods of acquiring knowledge, the methods of keeping notes, the forms of recitations, tests, and examinations, and the occasional use of reports, maps, debates, or lectures. The teacher should know exactly what he or she intends doing, and he should, so far as is necessary for the proper conduct of the class, explain his plans to the class. Better be too definite upon this point, than not to give enough. Of course, it is not best to take out altogether the element of surprise from the work; but this element can best be given by the nature of the subject matter as it unfolds before the class, rather than by sudden changes in the method of conducting the class.

Another important topic to be considered at the beginning of the course is the reason for the study of the chosen field of history. Of what value is this particular story? What influence has this country had upon the world's history? How has this influence persisted down into the stud-

ent's own life? The pupil's interest should be aroused by showing the relation of the period to be studied to the civilization of his own nation. If the study is Grecian history, for instance, the teacher can show the influence of Greek literature and religion upon our own literature; the influence of Greek philosophy and science upon the Middle Ages and ultimately upon ourselves; and the influence of Greek art, particularly in architecture, throughout this country, which, through its passion for Greek democracy, has copied extensively not only Greek names of persons and places, but also all of its styles of architecture and decoration.

Next, the teacher should take up the geography of the country to be studied; pointing out its situation upon the general map of the world, its coast-lines, its rivers and mountains, its natural products, its lines of trade and communication. In nearly all the countries he must study there will be seen a geographical unity which can be easily comprehended by the student. Mesopotamia, the Nile Valley, Greece, the Mediterranean world, and England all possess a geographical simplicity which appeals to the weakest student. In the case of European history and American history the case is somewhat complicated by the variety of geographical conditions; but this very variety should be shown to be one of the reasons for the subsequent splitting of Europe into separate states, and for the variation of political and social ideals throughout the United States.

Lastly, before approaching his proper subject, the history teacher should relate his chosen field of history to that of previous nations. This work is usually done for the teacher by the text-book makers. In English history we have chapters upon pre-historic man, the Britons, and the Romans, before the Anglo-Saxons are reached; in ancient history the relation of the Greeks to earlier civilizations is discussed; in European history, the Roman Empire or Charlemagne's Empire will be presented; while in American history we have the great problem of the European background.

If the teacher has successfully thought out these several introductory topics, and presented them well to the class, then the pupils will be ready to enter upon their study with force and interest. They should have acquired respect for the instructor; have become certain of what is expected of them; have gained interest because the study touches their own life; and have obtained the antecedent geographical and historical knowledge necessary to a good understanding of the subject.

## Albert E. McKinley: Early Patron of Social Studies Teachers

LOUIS M. VANARIA

State University Teachers College,  
Cortland, New York

Albert E. McKinley, publisher and managing editor of *The Historical Outlook*, was the first president of the newly established National Council for the Social Studies in 1921. McKinley's journal became the major channel of communication between the Council and its membership. The December 1922 issue in its entirety was turned over to Edgar Dawson, secretary of the Council, who edited it as a first yearbook. Indeed, the December issues of 1923 and 1924 were labeled second and third yearbooks of the National Council for the Social Studies under the masthead of *The Historical Outlook*.

McKinley gave to the National Council an advantage denied to similar organizations of teachers who found the establishment of a journal a necessary and expensive first step. Started in 1909 as *The History Teachers Magazine* (the title became *The Historical Outlook* in 1918), the journal had a subscription list of five thousand potential members who could be contacted without expense to the Council. The magazine from its beginning published material on history, civics, economics, geography, and sociology. Professional literature in the teaching of social studies was meager. Social studies teachers needed to share their knowledge and experience. At a cost of two dollars and a half, Council members paid their annual dues and became regular subscribers to the journal. A one dollar membership furnished an annual copy of *The Historical Outlook* devoted to a summary of the progress of the social studies during the year closing with that number. Enthusiasm for the Council would bring

additional subscribers to a magazine already beset with financial stresses. The publisher and managing editor was a businessman as well as an active supporter of a new voluntary organization in the field of education.

Appeals for support of the new association emphasized enrollment as a professional obligation. With no tangible inducement except a journal whose subscription cost was added to the membership fee, the association spoke in glittering professional generalities. Every member of a profession must do his part in lifting the level of the profession to its highest usefulness. What better beginning step than membership in the only nation-wide organization devoted to the improvement of social studies teaching?

McKinley claimed he printed "every bit of news [he] could obtain about the National Council." No lack of willingness on the part of the editor prevented inclusion of even more items about the Council than the number carried during the first decade of the Council's history.<sup>1</sup> The Council used *The Historical Outlook* as a continuing outlet of announcements, plans, programs, resolutions, and transactions of interest to social studies teachers.

The financial arrangements by which the magazine became the official journal of the Council freed the association of much of the routine and costly duties of a central office. Not until 1940 did the Council create the salaried position of executive secretary who set up a central office in the National Education Building in Washington, D. C. The McKinley Publishing Company nurtured the

Council in its infancy by maintaining the membership list and mailing membership cards, bills, expiration notices, receipts, the journal, and later, the publications of the Council. The Council's publicity, aside from that growing out of the attendance at its meetings, came very largely through the pages of the journal. Invitations to join the Council were placed upon circulars describing *The Historical Outlook* and other McKinley publications. From 1923 to 1930 between 65,000 and 85,000 copies of these circulars were distributed annually.

In return for the aid given by the magazine, the Council assisted the editor in gathering material for the journal and assumed some editorial responsibility. William G. Kimmel and later Howard E. Wilson prepared columns under the heading "Recent Happenings in the Social Studies." Most of the items they reported were brief abstracts of magazine articles and references to available pamphlets, monographs, and other publications. About a third of the items referred to research projects, summaries of theses, courses of study, publications plans, announcements, and reports of meetings of social studies teachers.

When the American Historical Association voted in 1925 to discontinue appointment of a Board of Editors for *The Historical Outlook*, a committee of the National Council for the Social Studies edited the journal with McKinley until he surrendered editorial management and the title of the magazine to the trusteeship of the A.H.A. in 1934.

#### ESTABLISHMENT OF *The Social Studies*

In December, 1933 Conyers Read, Executive Secretary of the A.H.A., announced that the Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools "had reached the end of its labors." Except for the publication of several additional volumes in its report, the most immediate concern of the Commission was the disposition of an unexpected balance of about \$45,000. The Council of the A.H.A. had voted on December 27, 1932 to allocate in a separate fund "for the further study of teaching problems" the Association's share of royalties

arising out of the publications of the Commission. With the consent of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, the association decided to apply the funds segregated for continuing the work of the Commission to the support of a journal which would carry on a program of familiarizing teachers and educators with the report of the Commission and extend the influence of the report. Representatives of the A.H.A. then arranged with McKinley to assume responsibility for the editing and editorial expense of *The Historical Outlook*, which at the time was not self-supporting.<sup>2</sup>

The McKinley Publishing Company retained title to the magazine; its name became *The Social Studies*. The company also retained the subscription list, together with responsibility for building the list and for publishing the journal. A percentage of the price of each subscription was paid by the company to the A.H.A., and when the publication became the official journal of the National Council for the Social Studies (as *The Historical Outlook* previously had been), 40 cents of each membership, which included subscription to the journal, was paid to the A.H.A. to be applied to editorial cost. The agreement between the A.H.A. and the McKinley Publishing Company was for a five year period but could be terminated on notice from the former at the end of any year. At the end of five years, title to the magazine was to pass to the A.H.A.

These arrangements placed the official journal of the National Council in the paternalistic hands of the association of historians. Because McKinley acted without consulting the officers of the Council,<sup>3</sup> some members of the Council grumbled about a lost opportunity to take over the journal or start a new one. However, the treasurer's report at the end of 1933 clearly indicated that financially the Council, unlike the Carnegie-enriched A.H.A., was in no position to undertake a publishing project of the magnitude of a journal.<sup>4</sup>

The A.H.A. clearly understood the affiliation of *The Historical Outlook* and the Na-



tional Council. A letter from the Executive Secretary of the A.H.A. to the Secretary-Treasurer of the National Council confirmed that the scholars intended "making no change in policy except to make *The Historical Outlook* more clearly an organ for teachers of the social sciences and also to cement more firmly the relationship existing between the National Council and the McKinley Publishing Company."<sup>5</sup> The executive committee of the A.H.A. voted on March 3, 1933 to consult with "representatives of secondary school interests in history" regarding editorial policy of *The Historical Outlook* and the selection of an editor.<sup>6</sup> When the Association turned to the National Council, William G. Kimmel, then president of the Council, was named to attend meetings of the committee considering the matter. What had appeared "a graceful gesture" at the time<sup>7</sup> ended with the appointment of Kimmel as Managing Editor of *The Historical Outlook* when it became *The Social Studies* in 1934. McKinley retained the title of Editor, though ill health and the location of the editorial office for the journal on the campus of Columbia University prevented more than a "nominal relation."<sup>8</sup>

At a meeting on April 26, 1936 of the Executive Board of *The Social Studies*, chairman Erling M. Hunt, who had succeeded Charles A. Beard, led a discussion of the journal's financial condition. By the end of 1936, with the transfer of the title to the journal still two years away, the Executive Board would have approximately \$12,000 with which to meet anticipated expenses of more than \$18,000.<sup>9</sup> The Board discussed in detail the contract between the A.H.A. and the McKinley Publishing Company and concurred that the agreement should either be revised or terminated. Kimmel was instructed to prepare estimates of publication costs (including printing and distributing expense) as well as editorial costs, together with an estimate of probable income from subscriptions and advertising.<sup>10</sup>

Subsequently the Executive Committee of the Board, Messrs. Hunt, Read, and Wilson,

met to consider the estimates. Read, representing the A.H.A. and the Executive Board reported that the McKinley Publishing Company and the estate of Albert E. McKinley, who died on February 26, 1936, were unwilling to modify the agreement. Hunt, acting for the Executive Committee of the Board, found the American Book Company willing to assume responsibility and the expense for publishing a new magazine which should be the official journal of the National Council for the Social Studies, and which should be edited under the joint direction of the Council and the A.H.A. In August, the Executive Committee of the A.H.A. voted to give notice to the McKinley Publishing Company of the termination of the publishing contract, effective December 31, 1936, and authorized the Executive Board of the magazine to propose a new contractual arrangement "for the publication of a magazine similar to that issued under the name *Social Studies*, and for an arrangement which might lead to financial independence."<sup>11</sup>

Meanwhile on April 30, 1936 Kimmel resigned as Managing Editor, effective the following August 15. Financial considerations prevented the appointment of a full-time editor and made desirable the maintenance of the editorial office at Columbia University, which had provided office space for Kimmel both as Executive Secretary of the Commission on the Social Studies and editor of *The Social Studies*. In the end, Hunt accepted the editorship. The three fall issues of *The Social Studies* in 1936 appeared under the editorship of Hunt. In late November, Professor Arthur C. Bining of the University of Pennsylvania, who had accepted the editorship of *The Social Studies* when editorial responsibility reverted to the McKinley Publishing Company, and Hunt divided the articles then in the files of the New York office. The first issue of *Social Education*, the new official journal of the National Council for the Social Studies appeared in January, 1937.

The assumption of responsibility for publishing and distributing its own journal and

publications moved the National Council far toward independent status as a professional association of social studies teachers. The McKinley Publishing Company had rendered highly important service in providing a journal, a publisher, and a distributor for National Council publications during the early years of the organization's history. Albert E. McKinley, a founding father of the Council, was one of a handful of university folk, actively engaged in the academic community, who determined to give to the social studies movement part of their time, talent, and tenacity. A small core of hard-working and dedicated members characterizes the infancy of most educational associations. The National Council for the Social Studies and its founders' as illustrated by the role of McKinley, bridged the field of education and the disciplines of history and the social sciences. Journals such as *The Social Studies* and *Social Education* continue to serve the educational and professional interests of social studies teachers. These periodicals are monuments to the professional spirit of men who

place service, altruism and promotion of the personal welfare of social studies teachers ahead of personal gain.

<sup>1</sup> Statement by McKinley to Board of Directors, National Council for the Social Studies Archives, 1930.

<sup>2</sup> *Annual Report of the American Historical Association* . . . 1935, Vol. 1 (Proceedings, 1933, 1934, and 1935), pp. 12-13, 97.

<sup>3</sup> Bessie L. Pierce to Edgar Dawson, May 3, 1933, NCSS Archives, 1933.

<sup>4</sup> Income had dipped to \$1,544; expenditures amounted to \$1,183. In January, 1932, the Farmers Loan and Trust Company of Iowa City, Iowa closed its doors and tied up Council funds amounting to \$1,365.62 which had been placed in a savings account "in order to get 4 per cent interest." On December 24, the bank made payment of \$136.56 or ten per cent on the deposit. Treasurer's Report, 1931-1932; 1932-1933, NCSS Archives.

<sup>5</sup> Pierce folder, NCSS Archives, 1933.

<sup>6</sup> *Annual Report* . . . 1935 (Proceedings for 1933), p. 3.

<sup>7</sup> Pierce to Dawson, July 10, 1933, NCSS Archives, 1933.

<sup>8</sup> Roy F. Nichols, "Albert Edward McKinley: 1870-1936," *Social Studies*, Vol. 27 (April, 1936), p. 222.

<sup>9</sup> Interview with Erling M. Hunt, February 27, 1957.

<sup>10</sup> Minutes for April 26, 1936 in *Social Education* binder, NCSS Archives.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, letter from Read to Hunt dated August 17, 1936.

## The Organization of the English Army Under Elizabeth I

EDWARD A. HOROWITZ

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Elizabeth I's reign, on the whole, does not contribute a very encouraging chapter to the history of English military organization. The great flaw in Elizabethan policy, according to most military historians, was the government's failure to make provision for a permanent, paid army.<sup>1</sup> War had become a profession by Elizabeth's time and, unlike the feudal period, could no longer be considered merely as an appendage to everyday living.<sup>2</sup> "Elizabeth had to rely on a military organization which at first was largely medieval

in character, although elsewhere in Europe regular modern armies had already made their appearance."<sup>3</sup> A dismal picture of the inefficiency characterizing the army organization is drawn by Sir Charles Oman.<sup>4</sup> William Cecil, the first Lord Burghley, wanted England to be self-sufficient in armaments and not dependent on foreign supplies. England had been left behind other nations by the advance of technology during the Renaissance. There was little done to manufacture gunpowder until 1565 when George Evelyn

received a monopoly to manufacture gunpowder and several mills were set up in Surrey.<sup>5</sup> Nevertheless, Elizabeth felt that since England was not at war there was no need for a standing army, which was quite an expensive undertaking and to which her thrifty nature was none too amenable. It is true that when she ascended the throne the finance of the country was in hopeless disorder because of the misgovernment the previous years had produced. One factor was the unwillingness of the nation to meet the cost of a standing army judging from the general hostility borne by the people towards the levy of troops. This is shown recurrently in the state papers and also in the history of the military pensions in the latter part of the reign, which suggest the inability, or unwillingness, of the community to give support to even the comparatively few disabled soldiers, who, altogether, composed a much smaller complement than would have been required for an effective standing army. It follows, therefore, that the people would not have consented to support a whole army which, unlike the disabled men, would need arms and equipment, necessities which had been made all the more expensive by recent tactical developments.<sup>6</sup>

Undoubtedly, the principal evil was the corruption flourishing throughout the army. Profiteering was rife in most branches of organization. Shakespeare, no doubt, draws from contemporary life when he shows us, in the muster scene from *II, Henry IV*, Captain Sir John Falstaff rejecting the services of able-bodied men like Mouldy and Bullcalf, after a few pounds had changed hands, and accepting instead for his company men like Wart, Shadow, and Feeble. The forces, therefore, that were obtained were, at best, very unsatisfactory gatherings of quite questionable quality, characterized by a terribly deficient organization and inept military training. To arrive at some idea of the manpower available in the different countries, we can examine the South where there was a more efficient administrative machinery. In 1588, the year of the Armada,

four southern countries, Gloucester, Somerset, Kent, and Devon, in that order provided over ten thousand able men between the ages of sixteen and sixty. Surrey, Cornwall, Wilts, and Sussex were the next most populous group. It can be seen that the exposed southern maritime countries received the brunt of the burden of defense. Very little mention is made of the manpower available in the Midlands and North.<sup>7</sup> There were virtually no efficient, ready-made arrangements for moving troops overseas at the beginning of the reign, while the costs of transportation overseas depended upon the greed of the merchants, who were responsible for the transportation. When forces were sent abroad, they had to be instructed in rudimentary drill after landing in France or Holland. It was the untrained men who were sent to the front in order that the supply of trained men might be conserved. At the same time the mentally, morally, and physically unfit were preferred, even let out of jail, rather than rejected in conscription. The efficiency of the troops was thus vitiated by the levy of rogues and vagabonds in an effort to arrive at domestic peace.

Many plans were presented during the reign for the establishment of some sort of a permanent force. The two main sources of change in military organization were the Privy Council and the Queen, and the forces themselves. The consensus is that the Queen and Council were reasonably efficient in their handling of the army, in spite of the financial limitations and the almost open hostility of the people. The new merchant class also emerged at this time as a factor in army organization by supplying, with some corruption on the part of profiteers, rations, clothing, pay, and arms to some extent. For this corruption on the part of the merchants, the officers were largely to blame. "The army system lent itself with fatal facility to the corrupt inclinations of the time. . ."<sup>8</sup> The framework devised by the government was comparatively strong by the end of the century, but it could hardly be entirely satisfactory while the merchants were themselves corrupt.



After the rebellion of the Catholic nobility in the North in 1569, in which the Northern rebels enjoyed superior equipment over that of the Queen's forces, pikes and firearms began to be substituted for bows and bills. It was on May Day, 1572, that the Army was born out of the Queen's review of Londoners at Greenwich. Many captains and soldiers who had served in Scotland, Ireland, and France, and now were unemployed, were in the ranks. Later some were to join who had served in the Netherlands after Spain had temporarily replaced France as England's traditional enemy. Although the total English garrison in the Netherlands numbered scarcely more than 4000 men,<sup>9</sup> Elizabeth realized that there was little gain by fighting in the Low Countries. "But at least her Low Country contingents supplied her with a small nucleus of trained English officers and soldiers which she did not hesitate to draw upon when she had need of them elsewhere."<sup>10</sup> Although Greenwich saw the beginnings of the Army, it was London which led the van of military improvement.

The most important military development in the reign was probably that of firearms over the older weapons. The longbow was on the decline, for although it was still the principal weapon of the infantry in 1558, its use was officially prohibited in 1595 when the Council ordered the Lords-Lieutenant to accept no longer as properly equipped any member of the county militia who came armed with only a bow and arrows. There still had been a furious controversy on the subject of archery between two professional soldiers, in which Sir Roger Williams had advocated the harquebus and Sir John Smythe had defended the longbow. Both arguments contained logical reasons for retention or replacement of the longbow, but the Council's action in 1595 ended the matter. Although the longbow did not become obsolete until some years later, it had been only in some of the midland shires that the bowmen had outnumbered the harquebusiers. The Privy Council had indeed shown much courage as well as foresight in substituting fire-

arms for the bow, so strongly was the bow held in esteem by influential opinion and also in view of the enormously increased expenditures which the newer weapons made necessary. The Council really had no choice in the matter, however, for the introduction of firearms in Europe had put England at a temporary, though decided, disadvantage, of which the other nations were keenly aware. The well-disciplined Spanish infantry was the envy of all Europe.

During Elizabeth's reign the nomenclature of the military personnel underwent a complete change. New ranks began to replace the older, feudal grades. The regiment, a body of ten or twelve companies kept together under a colonel, became a stabilized term and established as a tactical unit towards the later days of the reign, though at the beginning of the reign companies were not grouped into regiments. The Elizabethan regiment was characterized by its ten or twelve flags of diverse colors, one for each member company, which helped to make rallying easier at a time when each company consisted of differently armed men. The regiments were very large at first, two to three thousand strong after the Spanish model, but by the end of the reign the more manageable number of twelve to fifteen hundred was commoner.

The general, as overall commander, had to be not only a military administrator, strategist, and tactician, but he was also required occasionally to function as a statesman and economist in matters of financial exchange. The captain, usually appointed by the Privy Council, served as a liaison between the higher command and the company. It was he who selected the subordinate company officers. In most spheres of activity, the lieutenant served as understudy to the captain. Next to the captain, however, the clerk, a non-combatant, was the most important individual in the company administration. His position gave him a great power, for his function was to keep the records of the company in matters of personnel, armor, and equipment.

The tactical unit of the Army was the company, commanded by a captain, with a lieutenant and an ensign. The non-commissioned officers included two sergeants and three corporals, together with a "gentleman of the arms," whose responsibility was the good condition of the weapons. The complement of a company numbered anywhere from one hundred to two hundred men, generally one hundred and fifty. The captain was commissioned to collect his men. He drew their pay and was allowed to keep ten percent, known as "dead pays." The system was easily and often abused. In an attempt to keep a check, the mustermaster from time to time inspected the men and compared the nominal rolls with those on parade, but men could be borrowed from other companies for the occasion. This was true especially in Ireland where, in the Irish wars, it was even a practice to borrow men from the enemy, who often ran away with their newly acquired arms after the parade. The discipline, of course, depended on the general in command, and such abuses were rare indeed under the leadership of such able soldiers as Charles Blount, who afterwards became Lord Mountjoy and performed excellently in Ireland, and Sir Francis Vere. On the whole, the English soldiers fought well, though there were some regrettable incidents.

In battle, the infantry was placed in a central mass of pikemen and halberdiers, while musketeers were stationed on the flanks. During the first thirty years of the reign, archers were still to be found mixed with the gunfire. During battle, the musketeers were trained to retire for cover behind the pikemen. With the latter rested the final decision of battle. The cavalry was always deployed on the flanks, and many of the horsemen had begun to use pistols, an innovation attributed to Maurice of Nassau. Pistols, however, added little to the efficiency of the horsemen, for their attention in cavalry affairs, such as shock and impact, tended to be distracted. The horsemen began to shed gradually some of their ponderous armor all through Elizabeth's reign. The

fully armored horseman had become obsolete by the end of the century. With the exception of generals and other superior officers, all the ranks in the cavalry dropped leg armor in favor of high leather boots. Meanwhile, the artillery, growing in efficiency, was used regularly in battles as well as in sieges. Nevertheless, it was prevented from playing too decisive a part in the majority of engagements by its slowness of discharge and its short range, Sir John Smythe's complaint against all firearms. Though the calibres and patterns of guns were very numerous and complicated at the time on the Continent, they were not much applied by England's professional soldiers, for Elizabeth opposed the spending of money on stone, mortar, powder, and shot, to such an extent that the soldier was charged with the cost of the powder he expended in both practice and battle in order to encourage economy. "For all its drabness and difficulty, finance is the essence of Elizabeth's story."<sup>11</sup>

The best soldiers were the volunteers, who were not difficult to obtain when a campaign promised good loot. Distinguished noblemen recruited special companies from their own followers, a feudal holdover. Shakespeare tells us in *Henry V* of the high esteem in which the yeomen were held. "And you, good yeoman, Whose limbs were made in England, show us here The mettle of your pasture. Let us swear That you are worth your breeding, which I doubt not, For there is none of you so mean and base That hath not noble luster in your eyes." It is not difficult to realize the importance of the yeoman, for these men from the country had formed the bulk of the archers at Agincourt. While that, of course, was in 1415, it still takes no great stretch of the imagination to believe that Shakespeare, who wrote what he observed, thought highly of contemporary yeomen as well. Many men of good family had accompanied Essex on his expedition to Rouen, Cádiz, and the Azores, among them John Donne, the poet. On the other hand, records show that the fanatic Guy Fawkes had deserted the English Army on the Continent

and had even fought against the English as a renegade member of the Spanish Army.

One of the newer branches of organization was the victualling of the troops. After many abuses by profiteers only indirectly responsible to the Crown early in the reign, the contracting system became firmly established to the greater benefit of the service by the end of the reign. The main weakness, however, was that of food preservation, aside from dried fish and salted beef. Another undoubted weakness in military organization involved the incompetence of the average surgeon. The medical service had grown from practically nothing into a recognized branch of organization two centuries before Elizabeth. A marked improvement in the treatment of sick and wounded men was made during the reign, concomitant with the comparatively late development of established military hospitals.

The Council made an honest effort to improve the lot of the privates who at first had been, comparatively, the worst off of all ranks, due to the machinations of their captains. Nevertheless, the shortage of money limited the well-intentioned generosity of the Council. Had Elizabeth been determined to raise and maintain a permanent standing army, an entirely different complexion of her reign might have resulted. Although the reign did produce some very fine soldiers, among them the Veres, Roger Williams, and Lord Mountjoy, it was Elizabeth's policy of economy, together with the haphazard levying followed by perpetual disbandments, which generally resulted in producing very unsatisfactory armies. Moreover, it was the Navy which captured the hearts of the people, especially after the Armada. The aura of romance and adventure which surrounded

Drake and the other Elizabethan "sea dogs" played too dominantly on the affections of the nation. The Army would have to wait another fifty years for Oliver Cromwell to forge it into a "Model" force.

The continuous and uninterrupted demand for men was one of the main difficulties faced by the government. The average number of new levies for foreign service, from 1585 to the end of the reign, was well above five thousand a year. Had a lull occurred in the Army's requirements, the organization of the forces on a sounder basis might have been possible, but no lull was ever forthcoming. The government was given no chance to take advantage of the experience garnered in the wars to build up a complete and new organization. It had proven itself amenable to the adoption of sound proposals for its organization of the forces, which makes it difficult to understand why it rejected them without good reason. The answer, most likely, is that the people had not yet prepared themselves for the maintenance of a standing army as it is known to us today.

<sup>1</sup> Cruickshank, C. G. *Elizabeth's Army*. London, 1946, p. 135.

<sup>2</sup> The thesis of J. W. Fortescue. *A History of the British Army*, I. London, 1899.

<sup>3</sup> Cruickshank, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

<sup>4</sup> Oman, Sir Charles. *A History of the Art of War in the Sixteenth Century*. New York, 1937.

<sup>5</sup> Rowse, A. L. *The England of Elizabeth*. New York, 1951, p. 124.

<sup>6</sup> Cruickshank, *op. cit.*, p. 136.

<sup>7</sup> Rowse, *op. cit.*, pp. 218-219.

<sup>8</sup> Neale, J. E. *Queen Elizabeth*. New York, 1934, p. 288.

<sup>9</sup> Cheyney, Edward P. *History of England from the Defeat of the Armada to the Death of Elizabeth I*. New York, 1914, p. 205.

<sup>10</sup> Read, Conyers. *The Tudors*. New York, 1936, p. 225.

<sup>11</sup> Neale, *op. cit.*, p. 282.



# The Colony of Sierra Leone, An Experiment In Tropical Developments

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SIERRA LEONE LOOKS AT LIBERIA

Sierra Leone is a British Colony lying on the great bulge of West Africa just northwest of Liberia. Since both are very similar in their situation, natural environment, and cultural background, it is very fascinating to see the difference in the development of the two, one as Her Majesty's colony and the other as an independent republic. Although a full discussion of this theme is beyond the scope of the present article, since the writer has had first hand contact with Sierra Leone only, a few comparisons and contrasts will be noted. Since Liberia is relatively well known to many Americans as compared with other African colonies, this approach to the subject of Sierra Leone will perhaps follow the well known educational dictum of going "from the known to the related unknown."

Sierra Leone and Liberia were both started as asylums for repatriated Africans, refuge areas colonized by former slaves sent back from England and America. In both the "returnees" have tended to form an exclusive clique, much criticized today for their aloofness and alleged tendency to exploit the natives up in the "bush." The native peoples of both are quite similar culturally; indeed several of the tribes are divided by the international boundary.

Both are part of the wet and dry tropics with a very heavy rainy season at time of high sun during our northern summer, but also with a marked dry season during our winter. A recent writer<sup>1</sup> states that there is little data on the climate of Liberia. By contrast there is a very considerable amount of

weather statistics available for Sierra Leone, based on a number of years of observing and fairly widespread sampling.

In response to the heavy rains both were once mostly tropical forest, but today those who know the two countries say the degraded farm bush of much of Sierra Leone contrasts most unfavorably with the still impressive forests of Liberia. The latter, of course, are relatively unexplored and very poorly mapped. On the other hand there are an atlas, "top" sheets, and a large assortment of maps available for Sierra Leone, although the distribution maps are based on impressions, not precise data. As an indication of the relative accessibility of the interior of the two countries, Liberia is said to have had only one road into the interior in 1953; at that time Sierra Leone had a considerable network to a total of 2,756 miles of highway. Indeed, she had a railroad almost to the eastern frontier and a branch line into the northern province before World War I. Unfortunately, as is implied, there seems to be a direct connection between the opening up of the country and the destruction of its resources.

Comparisons and contrasts of the natural endowments of the two countries are interesting. Both have considerable iron ore deposits which are now being exploited with outside capital. Sierra Leone has perhaps the best natural harbor in West Africa, an anchorage that will float the Queen's navy; Liberia has had only open roadsteads like much of Africa, until the United States Government built an artificial port at Monrovia, following World War II. The soil map for Africa shows both

countries as having the same soil type, poor laterite capable of producing about one crop of upland rice in ten years.

On the development side, Sierra Leone is most certainly ahead, yet Liberia has an impressive plantation development, the Firestone interests, which Sierra Leone cannot match; she has no plantation worthy of the name. This has been in part the result of Government policy, for of course Sierra Leone has developed through the years with the advice and assistance of Her Majesty's colonial officers. Until recently Liberia has had to go it alone, yet in the last several years the United States Government has spent more money on its little African stepchild than either Britain or France has spent on their African colonies,<sup>2</sup> computed on a per capita basis of the native populations. The two countries thus offer an excellent opportunity for those who would study colonial versus African development in environments sufficiently alike to make comparisons possible.

#### A THUMBNAIL SKETCH OF SIERRA LEONE

It might be well to define a few terms and present a simple portrait of the country before considering one aspect of its development. In general West African countries are composed of a Colony and a Protectorate. The Colony is a relatively small coastal area with a long history of Western contact, dating back perhaps a half century before Columbus discovered America. Here the people have long since assimilated a modified form of Western culture and are governed according to the European pattern. Beyond the coastal area is the Protectorate, the bulk of the country, which has only been under European administration for sixty or seventy years. Here many or most of the people are illiterate and native chiefs may still govern through the old unwritten native law and in many cases couldn't read it if it were committed to writing.

In Sierra Leone the Colony consists of Freetown and the mountainous peninsula upon which it stands, an area of 256 square miles. The more or less Anglicized inhabi-

tants of this small area are called Creoles or non-native Africans to distinguish them from the aborigines of the interior. The Protectorate, with its nearly two million native people, has an area of 27,669 square miles, about three quarters the size of the state of Indiana. The natives are divided into thirteen tribes, speaking as many languages. Then there are numerous "strangers" as the wandering Foola people who drive cattle down from the grasslands in the north.

The north of Sierra Leone is part of the savanna but the south is bush. Perhaps once the country was mostly forest as the line between the forest and the grasslands has been pushed southward within living memory, just as most of the good forest has been destroyed in the south. The staple crop is upland rice, although there has been considerable pressure in recent years to increase the production of flooded or paddy rice, which has long been grown to a small extent. The cash crop is the kernel of the oil palm which grows wild over much of the country. Oil palms are scattered throughout the rice farms as they are spared when the bush is cut for burning to "make farm." Sierra Leone has tried about every tropical cash crop, including cocoa which has been so spectacularly successful in the Gold Coast. So far Sierra Leone has had no brilliant successes. Even the trade of the interior, beyond the present frontier, which once came down to the excellent port at Freetown was diverted away artificially when the French<sup>3</sup> encircled Sierra Leone during the period of partition.

#### THE FOUNDING OF FREETOWN

The colony of Sierra Leone was founded a century before the wild scramble for African territory in the closing years of the nineteenth century. If the latter was imperialism, the former was a philanthropic social experiment, "... Britain's noblest piece of humanitarian evangelism"<sup>4</sup>—antedating Point Four by more than 150 years. As such it should be of special interest to the student of tropical development because here is an experiment old enough to have had time to work itself out in a considerable measure.

The founding of the colony grew out of a social problem in England. In 1772 Lord Mansfield handed down a decision freeing the slaves of England. This turned out to be a Pyrrhic victory, however, for the abolitionists, because the household servants who had powdered the wigs of lords and waited on great ladies were turned out in the streets to fend for themselves. As there was little employment for them they soon formed a new class, the "Black Poor," supported by inadequate charity. Granville Sharp, to whose efforts more than any one else they owed their freedom, conceived of the idea of repatriating them, sending them back to their own land and people. Dr. Smeathman,<sup>5</sup> a naturalist who had spent time on the West African Coast suggested a likely site for the colony, the Sierra Leone Peninsula. This is a wooded mountain range some twenty-five miles long which projects out into the sea and contrasts conspicuously with the usual low-lying Africa coast. Here was an area but lightly populated and amazingly fertile, according to Dr. Smeathman, where one could with little exertion live exceedingly well. Granville Sharp's plan "took" both in philanthropic and official circles. The humanitarian group had a religious motive: a grateful colony of freed negroes, happily engaged in the peaceful arts of agriculture, would promote commerce and extend Christianity — set up a sort of chain reaction that would bring the blessings of Christianity and civilization to the African continent. Other more practical people sought to get rid of an unwanted social problem, the unemployed ex-slaves. Assistance for the venture was speedily forthcoming from private and governmental sources and more than enough negroes offered to take part in the experiment. In February, 1787, the first group of 351 ex-slaves, and sixty white women of ill repute whom the Government wished to exile, set sail for Sierra Leone.

Like all colonial ventures, it wasn't quite as simple as its sponsors had imagined it would be. In the first place, eighty-five members of the expedition, including Dr. Smeath-

man, died on the voyage and nearly two hundred more lay sick in their bunks. This was only the beginning of sorrows. It seems not to have occurred to their kinsmen, the natives, to welcome them back to Africa; instead they regarded the colonists as intruders. For the next several years the history of the settlement reminds one of our own colonial history: native attacks that sometimes threatened the very existence of the colony, bad management, discontent, starvation and disease, and general disillusionment.

But for considerable reenforcement the venture would doubtlessly have failed utterly. Over one thousand "Nova Scotians" arrived in 1792. This group, which represents our unintentional contribution to the new colony, originally came from the American colonies. They were run-away slaves who joined the British cause during the American revolution on the promise of freedom and a farm after the suppression of the rebellion. With the collapse of the British war effort, they were transported to the highly unsuitable shores of Nova Scotia where they found themselves worse off, in their opinion, than when they had been in slavery. One of their number finally managed to make his way to England where he contacted the officers of the Sierra Leone Company who promised to transport all those who could furnish evidence of good character, to Africa, and give each man a twenty acre farm, plus ten for his wife and five for each child. A few years later some five hundred fifty Jamaican colored were sent to Freetown from Nova Scotia, to which they had been exiled following the suppression of a slave rebellion in their home island. They arrived just in the nick of time to help the struggling colony beat back an attack by the surrounding natives.

During the next several years the colony was put on a more solid basis. A peace treaty was finally made with the natives and the British Government took over responsibility from the Sierra Leone Company which had proven quite unable to carry it. Sierra Leone became a Crown Colony January 1, 1808. The



abolitionist group, no longer burdened with what proved to be an unprofitable venture, were still actively interested in African affairs. In 1808 they succeeded in getting the British Government to set up a Vice-Admiralty Court in Freetown to try slavers captured by the British navy. Eventually the British succeeded in getting most of the civilized nations to cooperate in the suppression of the slave traffic, which greatly increased the effectiveness of the effort. An international tribunal sitting in Freetown tried five hundred cases in forty years, liberating nearly 57,000 slaves who were added to the population of the Colony. The British anti-slavery patrol continued along the Guinea Coast until the cessation of slavery in the Western Hemisphere stopped the traffic about the time of the American Civil War.

#### THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE LIBERATED AFRICANS

What to do with these thousands of liberated slaves landed at Freetown presented a real challenge to the British Government and the abolitionists who were responsible for their freedom. They were not English speaking, civilized and Christian Africans like the ones brought back from England and America, but a weird assortment of raw savages collected by slavers from all along the Guinea Coast. Since it was quite impossible, in most cases, to repatriate them, they were established as a settlement in the Freetown area. The Colony of Sierra Leone thus became a living museum of diverse linguistic and ethnic groups. Various writers estimate anywhere from fifty to one hundred languages could be heard in the vicinity. Indeed, a famous student of African languages collected the material for his *Polyglotta Africana* in the streets of Freetown. To get some idea of the tremendous task involved in trying to absorb these savages into the civilized and Christian element of the Colony, one needs only to consider a description of them from one who was an eyewitness:

These men, uncivilized, uneducated, and ignorant of the great purpose of their creation, unclad, exhibiting frightful models of the human figure, irrational

in their talk and gestures, apish in their laughter, fierce in their expression of anger and resentment, devouring their food with the restless action of the animal, need be seen but once to be long remembered.<sup>6</sup>

This most unlikely material was made over in the next several years into the bulk of the present day "non-native" African population of Freetown and the Colony as the earlier settlers, repatriated from England and America, never thrived but actually declined in numbers, doubtlessly in part because of the competition of this new group. Due to a very intensive effort on a relatively small group who were culturally uprooted, the British Government and the Christian missionaries were notably successful in transforming these people into what they tried to make them — although, as with the Anglo-Indian, the British seem not too proud of the product today.

Soon the Colony Peninsula with its mountainous backbone became an English county in miniature, in so far as the Mother country could be reproduced in the African tropics. There were Wellington, Hastings, Waterloo, Kent, and York — English towns where Anglicized Africans tilled the soil, built churches and schools, and even sent their children to Secondary School, or, if fortune smiled upon them, to Fourah Bay College in Freetown, the "Athens of West Africa." A lucky few even went on to school in English Universities, later to return to Freetown as doctors and lawyers. With the opening up of Africa numbers of these educated Creoles, as the colony-born non-native Africans came to be called, spread all down the West Coast from Cape Verde to Cape Town, filling positions as clerks for governments or commercial concerns. Often they returned in later life to retire amidst the scenes of their childhood. A few became great merchants in Freetown or Bonthe. One was even knighted by Queen Victoria at the time of her Golden Jubilee.

The Victorian Period was the Golden Age the native African back in the bush has been

of the Creole. Since then their fortunes have waned. The Colony villages with their English names and quaint charm, have fallen into decay. The Creole trader has long since seen his business slip through his fingers. Even in government service, once the Creole's undisputed domain, his monopoly is broken. Were the Creoles themselves at fault or was there something fatally wrong with their conditioning which, after a period of progress, led to decline?

#### POST-MORTEM ON THE CREOLE'S FAILURE

The geographically-informed reader will recognize that the basic assumptions upon which the Colony was founded were erroneous. Dr. Smeathman fell for the old delusion that tropical soils are rich, a misconception arising from the lushness of the rain forest vegetation. Actually, the upland soils are poor, leached by heavy tropical rains. The native practice of clearing and burning a patch of bush which is abandoned in a year or two for another may seem wasteful and foolish to a European but it was certainly more suited to the environment than the European practice of stumping the fields and plowing it. There would only be a crop or two in any case and the labor of clearing the fields was worse than wasted: it prevented the regeneration of the bush so necessary for the restoration of the soil's fertility. The native practice was a form of rotation: bush fallow, it is sometimes called. The settlers tried to farm but speedily caught on that there was little there. The Europeans tried to show their charges how to farm but to no avail. As the soils were impoverished about the villages, the settlers melted away, going into Freetown for jobs or scattering far and wide in pursuit of trade or clerical jobs.

The second assumption made by the founders was that they were "repatriating" the Africans. Actually, those people returned from England and America were culturally Europeans: they were African only in color. The native African, being a better anthropologist than the Englishman, called them "white men" and so they call those today who take on the European culture pattern. Since

went to regard "white man's humbug" with more or less contempt, the fact that these hybrids were African in color and European in culture was no asset to them. When the native people rose against the British in the Protectorate back in 1898 they slaughtered nearly a thousand Creoles living up-country, because they were Englishmen. The Creoles from the first didn't consider themselves any more akin to the bush native than the British did. Were they not English speaking, educated, Christian, and clothed like Europeans? What did they have in common with the naked savages of the interior? They realized too as every minority group has that they would have to maintain their individuality or be swallowed up. Furthermore their sponsors had overestimated the Creoles' potential influence. Transforming Africa was and still is to be a colossal task; the Creoles have had influence out of all proportion to their numbers, but the task was clearly beyond them.

In the opinion of a generation or two of administrators, educators, and assorted other African "experts,"<sup>7</sup> the third blunder was the type of education the Creoles were given and the way in which it was given. As might be expected they were given a typically bookish, classical sort of training with plenty of ancient languages and English history. Furthermore, it was often conferred by a foreign benefactor who provided a scholarship and perhaps had the child named for him. The student both from his African background and from his classical training got the idea that somehow work was degrading, not to be done by a gentleman of learning and culture. As soon as enough clerks were trained for the minor posts in government and commerce open to his race, there grew up a body of unemployed and often unemployable semi-educated youth who took out their frustration in agitation. The Belgians who were intensely "practical" in their training and tended to tailor their educational program both in quality and quantity to the prospective needs of their colony, are said to have avoided this difficulty.

## THE GREAT REVERSAL

Perhaps one of the greatest factors in the decline of the Creole was a change of attitude on the part of the European. When the Freetown Colony was founded, and throughout the Victorian Era, it was assumed that civilization was *one*, the Western Christian Culture pattern. Missionary endeavor was pressed with tremendous zeal and self-sacrificing devotion in spite of staggering losses. It is said that the Church Missionary Society lost more than one hundred missionaries in less than twenty five years during the early part of the nineteenth century and other losses were as appalling: hence the name "White Man's Grave" so often applied to Sierra Leone. In addition to the British Navy anti-slavery patrol, an attempt was made to occupy the coastal areas to suppress the slave trade back when the British did not want the interior. Ex-slaves rescued from the holds of slave ships were forced into European clothes as a matter of course even when they found the garments a most awkward uniform which they were wont to remove on trek and carry in a bundle on their heads.

The early years of the present century saw a complete right-about-face in African policy, at least in theory. Presumably, the European masters were disillusioned with the Freetown experiment and similar attempts at making "white men" of the Africans. Henceforth, development was to be along native lines and government was to be through native institutions.

There were a number of reasons for this abrupt reversal in policy quite apart from any short-comings of the Creoles. The new policy represented the European's reaction to the scramble for African territory, the rapid partition of vast areas that the Colonial Governments found themselves quite unable to digest: hence the urge to rule through native institutions.<sup>8</sup> The new philosophy did not apply to the trifling coastal areas which had been long occupied and Anglicized, but to the vast new holdings in the hinterland. Here illiterate pagan chiefs with vast harems were to rule their people through native law,

provided they cooperated with an occasional English district commissioner, "Pa D. C." to the African.

The change in policy was more than a temporary expedient, it was a theory of development. A new government school, started in 1906 back in the Protectorate 130 miles from Freetown to avoid the contaminating influence of "civilization," required the students to dress native fashion, live in primitive round houses and eat out of the common pot without benefit of silver ware. Nor was there to be any tampering with native loyalties or religions. In East Africa they even cut the legs off the school desks or tables so the students could sit native-fashion on the floor like their fathers before them. "Going native" was in fashion, at least with British colonial administrators. To many Africans, certainly the educated ones, it was a low device to hold the country back.

The great apostle of the new order was Lord Lugard, author of *The Dual Mandate*, but Mary Kingsley had advocated the same ideas a generation earlier. The British did such a complete job of ruling through native institutions that they even forgot their noble purpose in founding the Freetown colony and policing the Guinea Coast all those years. In 1927 the embarrassing fact came to light that the Sierra Leone Government was actually permitting slavery up in the Protectorate. The Colonial Office ordered a reversion to the eighteenth century policy and fast, but about the only effect of this reform was a great increase in polygamy. The chiefs and wealthy men now married their farm labor to a greater extent than they had before. The writer met an old chief with eighty wives, which was probably a bit exceptional although households of several dozen are common enough. Of course everyone cannot do that: the average "big man" who is not a chief is said to have only three or four up to a half dozen or so. Considering the social evil involved in this practice of concentrating the attractive young women in the hands of a few old men, one might say that the British made a mistake in doing away with slavery



unless they took the additional step of limiting polygamy among the chiefs, who although they are supposed to be the people's choice, are certainly puppets of the British Government. However, according to native custom, a chief must have a large personal establishment, wives, slaves, children and hangers-on, to have prestige and have his opinions carry weight.

Although the Creole traders had urged the British to acquire control of the hinterland long before the Protectorate was taken over, yet this event was their undoing. The British, who have long been noted for their ability to adjust to new circumstances and conditions, realized that their destiny in the new context depended on getting on well with hundreds of thousands of aborigines in the interior, and it made little difference what a handful of Anglicized Africans on the coast thought. The Creoles found with all their Western accomplishments that they were out of fashion and the "noble savage" was very much in style. Whatever the shortcomings of the Creoles, this basic shift in English colonial strategy from making "white men" of their wards to "development along native lines" was the key to the Creole tragedy.

Actually "development along native lines" and government through illiterate chiefs can easily end up as no development at all. With the present urge for ten year plans as part of the subsidized Colonial Development and welfare program for the advancement of Africa, the new African nationalism which is driving the English into granting self government to the colonies — they think prematurely — the urge again is inevitably toward development along Western lines, with a high priority on education and study abroad. But the new power will be the Protectorate political parties from sheer weight of numbers. Any skills that the Creoles may have had due to education and outside contacts have since been duplicated by native peoples. Even the retail business of the villages, once an important Creole endeavor, has fallen largely into the hands of Syrian merchants, leaving the Africans only the

petty trade. The Creoles may linger on as a diminishing group, a quaint survival of another age unless the "natives" of the interior decide to take out their old grudges on them when the British pull out in a few years, as some have suggested they would like to do. It will also be interesting to see what progress does to their counterpart, the ruling class of Liberia.

### THREE THEORIES OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

It may be helpful, by way of summary, to state briefly the underlying philosophies of the several approaches to African development. The early nineteenth century was characterized by a strong urge to "convert the heathen" to the white man's religious and cultural pattern. This was carried on for years in spite of heavy loss of life among the Christian missionaries. There seems to have been little hesitancy in subsidizing the endeavor, with scholarships and assistance for the native churches, to the extent that funds were available for the purpose. By the beginning of the present century the idea was gaining ground that the white man should avoid undue interference in native life — some would even leave them as they were. Subsidizing their development was particularly bad: Colonial governments were expected to live on their own meager resources,<sup>9</sup> as a matter of principle, to avoid pauperizing the people. Only such loans should be sought as the colonies were able to handle in interest and repayment, and economic development was the concern of private business and for profit. With the depression of the 1930's the idea gained prominence that it would be beneficial to the mother country to loan or even give considerable amounts to the colonies. Loans, even if not repaid, and gifts to the colonies helped generate employment and business activity in the homeland, for economic development in the colonies called for equipment and technicians, which meant jobs for Englishmen both at home and abroad. After World War II the program was so greatly expanded that the colonies found themselves in the embarrassing situation of being unable to spend funds<sup>10</sup> as fast as they

became available — another bewildering change in policy which tomorrow will justify or condemn.

<sup>1</sup> Gordon G. Lill, "Notes on the Villages of the Western and Central Provinces of Liberia, West Africa," p. 177. *Journal of Geography*, LII, No. 5 (May 1953).

<sup>2</sup> F. J. Pedler, *West Africa*, p. 126. London: Methuen and Co., Ltd., 1951.

<sup>3</sup> Benjamin E. Thomas, "Railways and Ports in French West Africa," pp. 9-10. *Economic Geography*, XXXIII, No. 1 (January 1957).

<sup>4</sup> Roy Lewis, *Sierra Leone, A Modern Portrait*, p. 67. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1954.

<sup>5</sup> H. Reginald Jarrett, "Some Aspects of the Urban Geography of Freetown, Sierra Leone," p. 346. *The Geographical Review*, XLVI, No. 3 (July 1956).

<sup>6</sup> F. A. J. Utting, *The Story of Sierra Leone*, p. 117. London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1931.

<sup>7</sup> Lord Malcolm Hailey, *An African Survey*, p. 1253. London: Oxford University Press, 1938.

<sup>8</sup> Sir Frederick J. D. Lugard, *The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa*, p. 216. Edinburgh: Wm. Blackwood and Sons, 1922.

<sup>9</sup> C. Grove Haines (Editor), *Africa Today*, p. 423. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1955.

<sup>10</sup> F. J. Pedler, *Economic Geography of West Africa*, p. 180. London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1955.

## Teacher Training in Economics: Coordinating Content and Methodology<sup>1</sup>

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This paper will outline the results obtained at The Pennsylvania State University from a project devoted to testing a method for improving the preparation in economics of prospective secondary school social studies teachers. Specifically, the primary purposes of the project were to test the hypotheses that relating material in the economics course to its application in high school teaching will produce greater economic understanding among prospective teachers and will develop early concern with the problems of translating economic contents to high school students. The report will also develop certain inferences which seem warranted by the data collected.

### EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

The project used the following procedure. Two sections of the regular course in elementary economics were both taught by the same instructor who, throughout the semester, made every effort to develop exactly the same content in both sections. Both sections were organized on a lecture-discussion basis and received the same examinations. One section (the control section) consisted of

twenty-nine students from a wide range of curricula in the university. The other was composed exclusively of twenty-two secondary education majors who indicated career objectives in social studies. The control section was randomly selected on the basis of normal university registration procedures. The experimental section, however, could not be considered a random population since this section was restricted to social studies majors or minors. Circumstances did not permit the assessment of comparative abilities of the two groups.

The section of education majors was subdivided on a random basis into two groups. Half of this section (to be called Group I in the remainder of this report) met occasionally with a professor of education and the professor of economics who, together with the students, discussed methods of presenting certain economic content to hypothetical high school groups. This discussion of methods for presenting economic content culminated in a session during which each member of the experimental group actually presented selected economic content using illus-

trations each felt appropriate. In the meantime, the other half (Group II) answered essay questions outside of class on content identical to that discussed in Group I. These questions were designed to further their understanding of the material covered but did not relate the material to a high school teaching situation. The answers to these questions were commented upon by the professor and returned to the students. The control section had no similar experiences.

#### EVIDENCE OF LEARNING

In terms of average final grades, the randomly selected control section received a grade of 1.8 (on the basis of 4.0 equalling A) while the section of education majors received an average grade of 1.5. This was also the average grade in each sub-division of the education section. Therefore, not only did the education students do less well than the randomly selected group, but those education students who discussed and worked with the content of the course in the context of the high school situation did no better than those who lacked this experience. It would be unwarranted, however, to conclude that the special teaching techniques employed with the education section adversely affected its progress in economics. The evidence gathered showed that the difference in average final grades was slight, that the groups involved were small and unmatched statistically, and that the control group members were further advanced, on the average, in their academic careers. On the other hand it should be pointed out, on the basis of this project, that it is unwarranted, also, to conclude that teaching economics to prospective secondary school teachers, using devices which dramatize the pertinence of the subject matter to their career objectives, will enhance their learning. This study was not extensive enough to warrant a definite answer.

#### ATTITUDE STUDY

The reactions of the students in the education section sub-groups to the instructional techniques used during the semester were gathered through a questionnaire. (Two of

the twenty-two students, one in each subgroup, did not complete the questionnaire.) In Group I (experimental section) 9 of the 10 students responding liked the lecture-discussion-demonstration technique used in teaching their sub-group and only one would have preferred to have been dismissed to answer essay questions, as the other subgroup was. Four students in Group I responded to another question by stating a preference for having the course taught on a lecture-discussion basis, while five would have chosen the method actually employed, lecture-discussion plus demonstrations of applications in the high school situation. (One student did not respond.)<sup>2</sup> In response to the question which asked when these demonstrations should begin, if they were used again, three suggested they start early in the semester, three that they begin in the middle, and two suggested employing them only late in the semester. Two did not believe the demonstration method should be used at all.<sup>3</sup> Group II was asked whether it preferred to be dismissed to answer essay questions or whether it would have preferred to have participated in the discussions and demonstrations of content applied to a secondary school context. Eight of the 10 in this group expressed a preference for being dismissed to answer questions while two would have preferred the other experience. Eight students in this group responded to a question which asked whether they would have preferred to have been in a group which learned the content of economics in the context of its application to public school teaching. Four thought they would prefer to be in such a group and four felt the reverse.<sup>4</sup>

When asked their preference regarding the method by which economics should be taught (lecture-discussion versus lecture-discussion-demonstration), the group split five and five which also indicates considerable ambivalence among the students regarding their preferences.

The last two questions were asked of both groups. Thirteen out of nineteen who responded thought they would learn more from



their courses if the instructor attempted to relate the content to their career objective.<sup>5</sup>

By a vote of 12 to 6, the combined groups expressed their preference for more prior training in teaching methods before the lecture-discussion-demonstration method is employed. However, again on this question Group II split evenly while Group I voted overwhelmingly for more prior training.

At this point, one might speculate about the influence of course objectives upon student preferences. Possibly if the task uppermost in students' minds was a mastery of economic content, they would prefer that method which most effectively presented content. If, on the other hand, the principal objective was the task of translating economic content into presentations meaningful to a potential secondary school audience, the preference in method might be that which aided the process of translation. One finds, under these circumstances, objectives which seem somewhat contradictory, i.e., exclusive emphasis on content might sacrifice appreciation of teaching methods or, conversely, too great emphasis on method might sacrifice mastery of content. Before conclusive evaluations of each method can be made, however, one must develop a full scale experiment of ample duration to test the ultimate residual value accruing from each method or combination of methods and should evaluate these methods in the light of explicitly stated objectives. One hears about, and perhaps the reader has experienced, situations in which lecture-discussion presentations have made coverage of extensive materials possible, but have not resulted in ability of teacher trainees to translate economic content to secondary school audiences. Perhaps for purposes of ultimate teacher effectiveness a combination of method and content, carefully designed and executed, might prove most beneficial.

#### CONCLUSION

In summary, it would appear that the students in this study had no great desire to alter whatever teaching technique was used in their group. They indicated no great wish

to have been in the other group and this might be taken to indicate either satisfaction or indifference or ambivalence.

This study reveals no support for the contention that relating the content of economics to its application in the high school classroom will enhance the economic understanding of prospective teachers. It does suggest, however, preference among the students for the type of instruction which would aid in their career objective of teaching economic content to high school students. Since time did not permit extensive use of the experimental technique, one can only wonder whether more extensive experiences in learning economic content in a secondary-teaching context might support the hypotheses of this study.

In light of the conclusions to which this study leads, it seems logical to suggest that the most fruitful areas for continued efforts are:

Still economic conditions (containing both the forces and relations of production in the guise of classes) seem to be the "basic" element of the social structure; but it is difficult to attribute priority in this way to any one element in the social system. Social structure and ideology are not simply derivatives of economic conditions. Other aspects of the superstructure also assert themselves in vital ways. Hence, the superstructure must take an important place in any analysis of the total social structure.

<sup>1</sup> This study was conducted under the joint sponsorship of the Joint Council on Economic Education and The Pennsylvania State University, Colleges of Education and Business Administration. An early and interested participant in this study was Dr. A. W. VanderMeer, Associate Dean, College of Education.

<sup>2</sup> The response to this question somewhat modifies the enthusiasm for the lecture-discussion-demonstration method evidenced in answer to the first question.

<sup>3</sup> This also modifies the initially revealed enthusiasm for the use of demonstrations.

<sup>4</sup> This modifies the reliance which can be placed upon the first preference of Group II to be dismissed to answer essay questions.

<sup>5</sup> Interestingly, Group II, which did not participate in the demonstrations, split evenly on this question but Group I voted overwhelmingly in favor of such attempted coordination, thus giving a majority preference for this technique.

## "The Problem of Freedom in the Classroom"

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The current doubts surrounding the efficacy and values inherent in the American way of life have led many peoples of the world to reconsider the acceptability of America's experiment in democracy. Today, more than ever, we want to show the world that our democracy is the ideal way of life. Educators have been quick to take up the challenge.

One of the focal points of democratic education is the problem of freedom in the classroom. This seems to include freedom for the student to express himself, freedom for him to develop his unique abilities, freedom from autocratic imposition of subject-matter, just to name a few. Some of the early schools of progressive education leaned toward the classical interpretation of freedom as an absence of restraint. This interpretation of freedom arose as a reaction against what progressives believed to be the philosophy of the older, traditional education. This older education, according to progressives, forced children to learn subject-matter isolated and divorced from the child's daily experience. Traditional education was accused of authoritarianism and harsh disciplinary measures along with its failure to consider the vital needs and interests of the child. Some early progressives held that the only way to release the child from the autocratic controls and stifling passivity of learning was by emancipating the schools from the shackles of traditional education.

Some progressives were fearful lest teachers impose their will on students and sever their creative energies. By considering free-

dom as an absence of hampering restraints, progressives held that they were taking the opposite view of traditional education. But the liberals in education failed to realize that an adequate educational philosophy cannot be built as merely a reaction against an older one. This reactionary philosophy built only upon negative tenets, never constructing a positive philosophy of educational growth and development. Instead of a release of the creative potentials in the child, as progressives had believed, anarchy arose in the classroom from a lack of teacher supervision and direction. An unrealistic picture of social responsibility was painted by a failure to recognize the relationship of freedom and authority in democratic living. Freedom is never absolute; it is always in relationship to the rights and privileges of others.

It is surprising to see some progressives, supposedly following the influence of Dewey, depicting the freedom of the child in this fashion. If any place, this concept of freedom finds its roots with Rousseau and eighteenth century liberalism. Even though Dewey admonished these educators that they had misunderstood what he was trying to do, some progressives remained heedless of his words.

The shift today in educational practice takes on a new direction and purpose. Life adjustment education, committee work, group collaboration, and cooperative projects have become the watchwords. Freedom has become socialized—restored to a social context. Freedom has little import or meaning apart from social relations. Educators believe that students can understand the sig-

nificance of freedom in relation to the rights and privileges of others.

Educators wish to develop the "whole child." Schools are no longer merely places for lesson-hearing; instead, schools seek to cultivate the full potentials of each child. This can best be done in an atmosphere of social cooperation and creative sharing. It is only when participation and sharing are carried to extremes do they become dangerous. Cooperative projects and group activity are a *means* in the learning process and not an *end*. But whenever they are treated as an end, participation and sharing, alone, are deemed desirable educational outcomes.

The pitfalls of group work are many. But nothing is more insidious than the loss of the individual to the group. When the individual must turn to the group for his values, for his sense of direction, he loses individuality and soon fails to find any purpose in life apart from the purpose inculcated within the group.

There is no social freedom in groups that encourage the individual to relinquish his rights and values to achieve group purposes and goals. When the individual is pressured to give up his values, his identity, and his desire for solitude, then the group has abridged human freedom. Group demands are frequently so indirect that the individual

is unaware of his embroilment within the process. Unless the individual is successful in rebelling, eventually he will find his values so enmeshed with the group that his original values are transmuted.

All of this throws the problem of freedom back on the teacher. What can the teacher do to bring about functional freedom in the classroom? He should see that students are unafraid to disagree with the group's policies or values. The teacher should realize that as important as cooperative group work may be, its purposes will be subverted if the members of the group cease acting as creative, thinking individuals. The atmosphere of the classroom should be one of inquiry and constructive criticism of existing practices. Each student needs to examine his role in the group to find out if he is offering a contribution, not only as a team member but as a unique individual. Students who are functionally-adjusted recognize the merits of purposeful group activity while, at the same time, they remain sufficiently detached to offer constructive criticism. Teachers can facilitate cooperative inquiry by helping to create an atmosphere where intellectual curiosity is promoted and rewarded in socially meaningful ways. In the final analysis, all teachers could well remember that group activities are designed for the individual—not the individual for the group.

## The Objectives of Social Living in the Elementary Schools

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### THE PROBLEM

One of the prime concerns today related to the education of children pertains to the manner in which they succeed or fail in the realm of social living. This anxiety does not

indicate the slightest neglect of any of the long recognized fundamentals of teaching and learning, even the three R's. It simply accepts the fact of a more complex environment in which our children live and mature.



This concern that we have for wanting our pupils to adjust well in their relationships is expressed profusely in curricular guides, state courses of study, professional magazines, bulletins, yearbooks, and in better professional books dealing with social studies methods in the elementary school. Furthermore, many of the present-day report cards, anecdotal letters written to parents, and outlines for teacher-parent conferences abound in statements pertaining to the child's response in social living situations.

The problems accepted by the author at the moment are two in number. First, just what are these social living objectives? Second, how well do elementary children respond to them? A previous article indicated a comprehensive method of determining what the accepted objectives of social studies are.<sup>1</sup> It also pointed out that the basic idea of any conceivable objective of social studies has already been stated many times and that these statements are somewhat in the category of common property. In the present situation the sources mentioned above were examined and the hundreds of different phrases were reduced to 17 in number. That list appears below in connection with a description of the results of the project.

#### METHOD EMPLOYED

The observation method was used. One or more classroom groups of children from grade one through grade eight were used as subjects. These individual groups were selected at random in the city of Carbondale, Illinois. Space will not permit a detailed description of the socio-economic aspects of the community. It will be maintained that in all probability these children are by nature similar to those of at least other midwestern communities. Furthermore, since most of the writing presenting characteristics of children at various age levels says nothing about community variations, we may assume that general similarity prevails.

Cooperating teachers were given the duplicated pages of objectives, one for each pupil in the room. These were distributed early in the school year with the request that

they be carefully studied to interpret the purpose of the study. It was then requested that implementation follow by observing the pupils throughout the year in terms of objective concepts involved. A simple key with a scale ranging from 1 to 5 inclusive was included as the means of marking the manner in which the trait was demonstrated, 1 being the most favorable demonstration. In addition a second check mark was called for to indicate where the reaction to the trait was observed (schoolroom, corridor, play situation, uptown, home, or other).

The seventeen items included in the check sheet used by the teacher to evaluate each pupil are as follows:

#### To:

1. Develop leadership ability.
2. Develop the ability and willingness to be good followers.
3. Take part cooperatively in group activities.
4. Take turns.
5. Respect others regardless of race, creed, etc.
6. Respect and care for public and private property.
7. Demonstrate honesty in all relationships.
8. Apply social studies information to practical situations.
9. Render community service.
10. Take part in clubs that have social value.
11. Use leisure time wisely and profitably.
12. Practice conservation.
13. Demonstrate kindness, tolerance, loyalty, obedience to authority, and other desirable character traits.
14. Be guided by the principle of the Golden Rule.
15. Appreciate the good, the beautiful, and the spiritual.
16. Be patriotic to the history, traditions, and principles of our country.
17. Become a good member of the family group.

As implied above, the pupils' social behavior was observed in as many school situations as possible; furthermore, his out-of-school responses were observed in as many instances as possible.

In examining the results in the grades one to three group we found that they scored best on items two, three, and four in that order. There were 240 of these pupils. They scored least well on items nine, eight, fourteen, and fifteen. There is close correspondence with the results for all grades on these items scored least well.

With the group in grades four to six we found that they were rated best on items sixteen, six, thirteen, and fourteen. There were 213 of these pupils. Items six and thirteen

rated high with the entire group. Items on which they did least well were one, eight, and three. The first two correspond closely with the results for the entire group.

The upper age pupils, grades seven and eight did best on items seven, sixteen, six, fourteen, and fifteen. There were 98 in this group. This corresponds somewhat closely with total results. Their lowest scores were obtained on items thirteen, eight, and one which conformed closely to results that were obtained with all the groups.

#### SUGGESTIONS

There are some general observations that seem pertinent. First, none of the items received a rank so low as to condemn the children or the manner in which their teachers are helping them attain the objectives of social living. For example, all of the ratings viewed rank average or above. Second, the pupils did unusually well on items involving patriotism, willingness to follow leadership, and in the demonstration of honesty. Third, some items could well be isolated for concen-

tration of efforts directed toward improvement. In item eight, much could be done to help pupils use and apply social studies information gained. In relation to item nine, laboratory experiences could be provided which would help pupils become community service minded. Item thirteen represents a rather formidable but necessary type of needed planning in fostering the growth of desirable attitudes. Fourth, attention is called to a point not quickly revealed in the results: namely, the teachers checked most of their observations based on those of the classroom or other school environment; it could be urged that a better study of individual pupils could result from more extended observations than now generally prevail. Fifth, each teacher should individually rethink the objectives of social living and evaluate carefully to see how well they are being attained.

<sup>1</sup> C. D. Samford. "Can Social Studies Objectives be Accomplished with Present-Day Textbooks?" *Social Studies*, XLV (April, 1954), 134-136.

## The Teachers' Page

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#### EVALUATION OF COURSE

##### EXPLORING THE WORLD OF KNOWLEDGE

The introduction of any new activity, directly involving large segments of the faculty and of the student body, and indirectly involving the school as a whole, does not lend itself to a quick and simple evaluation. Such is the case with the newly introduced series of lectures on "Exploring the World of Knowledge" popularly nicknamed by the students as "the culture course," which was described in a preceding issue in these pages.

One measure of the degree of success of the course is how well does it meet the overall objectives that motivated its introduction

—what immediate and what ultimate benefits does it have for the students. Since this was a *no requirement* course (although the students were encouraged to take notes and to do supplemental reading, they were not required to do so, nor were they expected to submit to a final examination), the testing for a residue of factual information based on the series of lectures (as important as it is in an evaluation program) was not contemplated at this time. Instead, a questionnaire designed to have the students give their personal reactions to the series of lectures was submitted to them just prior to the conclusion of the course. The boys and girls were not required to sign their names. A few did. Copies of the student objectives and of

this questionnaire are included in this evaluation.

Another measure of the true worth of the series of lectures, not originally conceived in the overall aims of the course, was its effect upon the school as a whole — both faculty and students. The very planning of the course, which initially involved members of the administrative and of the supervisory staff, and ultimately the whole faculty, had a stimulating effect upon the whole school. To many, the course, originally conceived prior to the sputnik era but introduced (not intentionally) during the "what is wrong with our schools" debates following the launching of the sputniks, was merely one more indication that Lincoln High School has always attempted to provide an adequate program for the academically gifted students. A kind of feeling of pride attached itself not only to those members of the faculty who became lecturers in the program (on a voluntary basis) but to everyone to whom the school has any real meaning. In addition the self-learning and the stimulation that accrued to the teachers who directly participated in the course — in the preparation of their lectures, etc.—are values which cannot easily be measured.

Concerning the students' evaluation of the course, the following is a summary of their reactions to the questionnaire.

#### STUDENT EVALUATION of the Course EXPLORING THE WORLD OF KNOWLEDGE

There was a marked contrast in the overall reaction to the course between the tenth and the eleventh grade students. The fact that the series of lectures was not the same for the two groups is probably the less likely reason for the difference in the nature of the response than is the variation in the age level and maturity of the boys and girls in the two groups. Our observance of the students during the course of the lectures revealed a generally greater degree of concentration and attentiveness on the part of the eleventh graders. The younger pupils,

not infrequently, exhibited a tendency towards fidgetiness and loss of interest in the speakers. However, both groups indicated by their responses that they derived considerable value from their experiences (See Table and Charts).

#### EXPLORING THE WORLD OF KNOWLEDGE

##### *Aims and Objectives*

1. To provide, for the students who are mentally gifted to pursue the advantages of such a course, an introduction to those areas of knowledge and ideas which have influenced the course of history and the interaction between men and ideas.
2. To inspire such students to identify themselves with one or more areas of interest, and to motivate them to want to pursue a more intense study of them.
3. To help them acquire attitudes necessary to the development of a critical or evaluative approach to all aspects or problems of living, both personal and groupwise.
4. To introduce them to and to give them some experience in the skills of study, research, and written and oral expression which they will need in their pursuit of knowledge beyond their high school years.

#### QUESTIONNAIRE SUBMITTED TO STUDENTS

##### EXPLORING THE WORLD OF KNOWLEDGE *Student Evaluation of the Course*

This is not a test. Please give the information asked for by checking the item or items which most apply to you.

1. Were you
  - a. Pleased with the course? ( )
  - b. Disappointed in the course? ( )
 State why \_\_\_\_\_
2. In general, the series of lectures were
  - a. Very interesting and worthwhile ( )
  - b. Moderately Interesting ( )
  - c. Dull ( )
3. As a result of the course I
  - a. Did extra reading (state what you read on the other side of this paper ( )
  - b. Spent considerable time thinking about the subjects covered in the course ( )
  - c. Had discussions on some of the subjects ( )
  - d. Began a new activity (indicate what kind—for example: painting, writing, visiting a museum, etc. (Use other side)
  - e. My plans for my future were affected (state how—use other side)



- f. Other ways course influenced me (use other side)  
 g. The course had no effect on my thinking or behavior ( )  
 4. In general the lectures were  
 a. "above our heads" ( )  
 b. Not too difficult to understand ( )  
 c. Covered information I already knew ( )  
 5. If you could change some of the procedures of the course, which of the following would you suggest:  
 a. Devote more time to lectures and less time to discussion ( )  
 b. Devote more time to questions and discussion by students ( )  
 c. Other (indicate what)  
 Why \_\_\_\_\_

6. List topics or subjects you would like to have added to the course.  
 7. Add anything else you want to about the course.

## Student Comments (11th Grade)

## Favorable

I learned things . . . I didn't know and the lectures aroused new interest in various fields.

It has given me a background in fields I thought I had no interest in.

Most lectures were quite interesting and enjoyable. There were a few I found boring mainly because of the manner of the speaker, not the material.

Thank you for the opportunity of attending these classes. I look forward to Tuesday, 6th.

## STUDENT EVALUATION

## of Course

## EXPLORING THE WORLD OF KNOWLEDGE

Student reaction to the series of lectures	Grades			Grades			
	11B (28)	11A (19)	Total 47	10B I (30)	10B II (28)	10A (24)	Total 82
1. Pleased	25	13	38	17	16	12	45
Disappointed	3	4	7	11	11	11	33
2. Found Lectures							
Very interesting and worthwhile	19	8	27	8	5	8	21
Moderately interesting	7	9	16	11	18	13	42
Dull	1	0	1	8	3	3	14
3. As a result of the course							
Did extra reading	5	1	6	5	2	1	8
Spent time thinking	14	4	18	13	13	9	35
Had discussions	24	9	33	17	9	10	36
Began new activity	3	0	3	0	1	0	1
Plans for future affected	2	0	2	0	2	2	4
No effect on thinking and behavior	1	5	6	5	9	10	24
4. Lectures were							
Above our heads	0	2	2	1	0	1	2
Not too difficult to understand	28	18	46	27	26	23	76
Covered known information	0	0	0	6	0	0	6
5. Prefer							
More lectures—less discussion	2	5	7	4	3	4	11
More questions and discussions	18	8	26	18	10	11	39

More is gained from a course which is not compulsory.

I thought the topic ——— discussed was particularly interesting, because ——— is my hobby. I enjoyed the course as a whole, very much.

I think it is a pleasure to go to a lecture and enjoy something in an informal manner.

I gained a liking of seemingly uninteresting fields. It spurred my interest in some courses.

It was interesting and started you thinking.

Gave me a chance to learn without worrying about my mark.

Could listen for enjoyment of learning. No worry about memorizing parts for a test.

I don't think the course needs any altering.

#### Critical

More illustrations would have helped most of the lecturers.

I feel that we could get more out of it if we had an opportunity to take part and discuss the topic.

It would have been more interesting if the lecturers did not read and explained more.

I think more time should be devoted to science and some of the unanswered questions of the universe.

I would suggest that we have not only culture, but also classes devoted to vocations.

Thought it would have more topics of general interest.

About half of the topics were of no interest to me.

Some of the topics were sort of dull.

I feel that there was not enough time to delve into subject.

#### Student Comments (10th Grade)

##### Favorable

I am glad we had it.

It was enjoyable, interesting, and just loaded with information.

It made me think more about the world and myself as part of it.

———'s summary of ——— is what prompted me (book)

to read the book.

It gave me some ideas on my future plans.

A period of relaxation. I could relax and learn something at the same time.

They were either very interesting or very dull.

There were no "mediums."

Brought many things out which I had not known before.

Widened my knowledge in many subjects.

It "woke me up."

It gave me knowledge in things that were of little interest to me and made my interest grow in these topics.

It gave me a well rounded view of different topics.

The course gave me a broader outlook on some of the so-called "Boring Subjects." It influenced my attitudes towards these topics so that every time I go to the library, museum, etc. I investigate them to a thorough extent.

It added something to my course which I wouldn't ordinarily have gotten.

##### Critical

Those who talked less and showed more were enjoyed.

Just not interested in topics presented. I did learn something.

It is difficult for a person to become interested in a completely foreign subject in an hour and a half talk, when the talk itself is so uninteresting.

A few were interesting, the rest were not.

Lectures merely scratched surface of topics.

Visual Aids might add more interest to the subject.

I think the information could have been presented in a more interesting way.

Boring and dull and taught me very little I didn't know before hand.

Lectures did not hold my interest.

Only one lecture held my interest . . . plain lecturing and speaking didn't hold my interest.

I think the class should be allowed to participate in the course.

Hardly any subjects were for me.

If they showed pictures it would be more interesting.

#### Topics Suggested by Students

##### To Be Included in the Course

1. American poets
2. Art, artists
3. Armed services
4. Astronomy
5. Careers and professions
6. Communism
7. Current problems of the world
8. Customs of other countries
9. Dating
10. Ectoplasmic apparition
11. Etiquette
12. Evolution
13. Geography
14. Hobbies
15. History
16. Industries
17. Leadership
18. Man's development
19. Medical progress
20. Music (popular, opera)
21. Mythology
22. Origin of language
23. Philosophy
24. Politics (world)
25. Psychology
26. Recent books
27. Religion (Religions of the World)
28. Science (space travel, atomic energy, etc.)
29. Sculpture
30. Sociology
31. Sports
32. Story of the Ocean

(Topics on science received the most requests.)

In addition to the student reaction obtained from the questionnaire we elicited oral responses from three classes visited for this purpose. In the main the reaction was similar to that obtained from the questionnaire. There was more sharp criticism by the tenth graders of some of the lecture techniques. There was a strong feeling against reading from books or notes (except for illustrative purposes) and a plea for more visual presentations. The request for more time for class discussion was stronger on the part of the eleventh grade students.

Our own observations tend to reinforce some of the student's comments. More frequent use of the blackboard such as writing names and new words and making simple

charts and diagrams where applicable, and pausing periodically to ask for questions and comments would tend to give the lecture additional spark. There is a tendency, of course, on the part of many students to expect teachers, in their role as lecturers, to make their presentations in such a way that the students find listening to them pure pleasure and enjoyment. Some teachers, partly because of their personality, do have techniques which make their lectures easy to take. However, getting knowledge—whether by listening to a speaker or by reading—isn't the same as watching an actor perform. The mature student realizes that and does not expect all teachers to display the skill of a performer. We tried to pass on these thoughts to the classes we visited.

Although there was no solicitation (in the questionnaire) for student reaction to individual lectures, many students were quite free in citing the lectures which they particularly enjoyed or found boring. One or two lecturers found themselves in both categories—liked and disliked. Since the Gym Department was gracious to the extent of releasing the students rostered to the course from one period of gym it should be of some interest to note that one student responded to the question "why he likes the course" with the comment: "I got out of Gym"; another student responded with: "I liked Gym better."

Many of the students, in our conversations with them, expressed the belief that the boys and girls should be given the opportunity to select the topics for the series of lectures. Our comment to them in reply was in the form of a question: Should a mother let a five year old child decide what it should eat? The students recognized this as a loaded question, but they grasped the implications—that immediate interest in a subject or its enjoyment is not necessarily the best or only guide to the selection of a well balanced mental diet for young people in school.

Regarding the future of this program, it will be continued as originally planned (with

some modification in subjects covered) but considered still in the experimental stage.

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#### *Releases of Interest to Teachers of Social Studies:*

##### *Social Security Kit*

Social Security offices will have kits of teaching aids which will be sent to any teacher, supervisor, or school upon request. This kit includes information on the latest amendments to the Social Security Act along with a new comprehensive book entitled "Social Security in the United States." This material is especially useful in social studies, business education, home economics, and other classes.

The kit consists of the following:

1. Folder attractively printed with the essentials of the Social Security system explained on the covers. This kit fits into any standard-size filing cabinet.
2. Three wall charts (38"x52") which help explain how Social Security in general and old-age and survivors insurance in particular operate.
3. Problem sheets for use by students under the supervision of the teacher in figuring examples of family benefits.
4. A variety of pamphlets about old-age and survivors insurance for the teacher's use with some available in sufficient quantity for the pupils' use.

This kit may be requested directly from local social security district offices. Requests for additional supplies of any pamphlets for this kit for classroom use should be made to your local social security district office as soon as possible to assure you an adequate supply for this coming school term.

Social security district offices are located in most of the larger communities in this country. If you do not know the location of your nearest social security office, you may obtain the address from your local post office.

##### *How Much for Security*

How much should the American people be willing to spend for security against their foes?



This and other questions relating to various economic and administrative aspects of the over-all problem of national security are answered in a pamphlet just published by the Committee for Economic Development (CED).

"The Defense We Can Afford" was written by James F. Brownlee, a New York investment banker, and chairman of the CED Subcommittee on Economic Policies of National Security, which spent two years studying the subject. It is based upon a statement of national policy issued in July by the Research and Policy Committee of the CED under the title, "The Problem of National Security."

Mr. Brownlee answers the often-made charges that high expenditures may lead the country to economic stagnation or collapse by saying:

"A realistic approach to the situation

shows that this fear has been greatly exaggerated. The truth of the matter is that the American people will have to decide for themselves what they think security is worth. But they can afford whatever has to be spent in the cause of national defense."

"The Defense We Can Afford" discusses such matters as the various military and economic threats to our security which we face at home and abroad. It points out that meeting this threat is a costly endeavor, especially in the face of heightened Soviet military endeavors and its new economic threat against the west.

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After positing the threats, Mr. Brownlee shows several ways to meet them that are within the means of an essentially healthy American economy, and sets forth a number of specific approaches to greater efficiency in our defense set-up.

## Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mt. Vernon, N. Y.

### NEW MATERIALS

**A-V Publications.** Four booklets are available for helping teachers use their A-V equipment effectively. Teaching with filmstrips, tape recorders, and motion pictures (both magnetic and optical sound) are covered. Bell and Howell, 7100 McCormick Rd., Chicago, Illinois.

**Oil Industry.** 35-page booklet answers some questions about gasoline marketing. Discusses retail pricing, price wars, and the suppliers' price to the retailer. Shell Oil Co., 50 W. 50 St., New York, N. Y.

**United Nations.** 95-page booklet, "How to Find Out About the U. N.," is filled with information about the U. N. and sources of additional books and leaflets, filmstrips, films, and posters on the subject, Member nations, headquarters building, U. N. flag, and simultaneous interpretation system; documents, publications, and visual ma-

terials; U. N. television, radio information services. 35 cents, Columbia Univ. Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, N. Y.

**Tapes for Teaching.** 55-page booklet listing 1711 tapes for classroom from pre-school to post-college level. Some categories: conservation, English, speech, drama, Spanish, social studies. Free from Audio-Visual Aids Service, Univ. of Illinois, Extension, Champaign, Illinois.

**Race.** "What We Know About Race," 40-page booklet of what "race" is and what it is not by Ashley Montagu. Primarily directed to youth groups and young adults. Essential points stressed: resemblance between ethnic groups; man's ability to learn and profit by his experiences; relationship between intelligence and race; effect environment on intelligence. Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 515 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.

*Everybody Wonders.* This is the title of a 16-page illustrated brochure, sponsored by National Coffee Assn., on the "growing up" problems of high school students. Covers studying, dating, grooming, driving. Scholastic Magazines, 33 W. 42 Street, New York, New York.

#### FILMS

*Woodland Indians of Early America.* 11 min. Color or black and white. Sale/rental. Coronet Films, Coronet Bldg., Chicago, Ill. Authentic reconstructions and scenes in eastern and Great Lakes areas provide settings for study of woodland Indian life, a Chippewa family shown hunting turkey, harvesting wild rice, fishing, eating.

*The Significant Years.* 28 min. Free loan. Association Films, 347 Madison Ave., New York, New York. Documentary of 1933 to the present prepared by *Newsweek*. Outlines the major events and personages.

*How We Explore Space.* 13 min. Color or black and white. Sale. Film Associates of California, 10521 Santa Monica Blvd., Los Angeles 25, Calif. Introduction to instruments used by astronomers and methods by which they obtain information about objects in space; telescopic time-lapse photography of sun, moon, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn.

*The Dinosaur Age.* 15 min. Color. Sale. Film Associates of California. Depicts the age of dinosaurs as reconstructed by museum experts working with fossil remains of giant reptiles.

*Fibers and Civilization.* 27 min. Color. Free loan. Modern Talking Picture Service, 3 East 45 St., New York, N. Y. Shows the history of fibers like wool, silk, cotton; development of man-made fibers.

*Life in the Sea.* 11 min. Color. Sale/rental. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill. Tells types of sea life, the "pyramid of numbers," importance of ocean life to life on land, food from the ocean. Photographed by skin divers in the Pacific.

*Building a Highway.* 18 min. Free loan. Modern Talking Picture Service, Inc., 3 East 54 St., New York. Traces man's progress

in building roads, from the Appian Way of the Romans to present super highways. It pictures the complicated job of planning and constructing a modern highway. It provides a better understanding of our current highway problems and the action needed to solve them, such as the new Federal Highway Building Program.

*Letter from Indonesia.* 16 min. Color. Black and white. Sale. Churchill-Wexler Film Productions, 801 No. Seward Street, Los Angeles 38, Calif. This is a portrayal of Indonesia as a nation, her geographical location and size, her people and their mode of life, their reliance on our concepts of freedom in their struggle for independence. It concludes with a brief review of current educational and social reforms following 300 years as a colony.

*Education in America: 20th Century Developments.* 16 min. Color. Black and white. Sale/rental. Coronet Films. Dramatic re-enactments, excerpts from documentary films, and views of original photographs are woven into this survey of changing educational philosophies emerging from twentieth century culture.

*The Future is Now.* 30 min. Black and white. Sale. Films of the Nations, 62 West 45 St., New York 36, N. Y. Depicts some of the fantastic developments which lie ahead. Peaceful use of the atom, taking pictures in color on tape and showing them through your TV set, the kitchen of tomorrow, automation and other inventions about to be released.

#### FILMSTRIPS

*World-History. The Middle Ages.* Set of 4 filmstrips designed topically so that you can utilize either the entire filmstrip or certain pertinent sections. Describes the migrations of early medieval peoples, feudalism, role of the Church, rise of the towns, and medieval contributions to society. Series includes selected original color photographs which well illustrate medieval craftsmanship. Questions at the end of each filmstrip provide excellent material for testing students and promoting class

discussion. Each filmstrip, in color, captioned . . . \$6.00; complete set, 4 filmstrips, boxed . . . \$21.60. Write to Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 Diversey, Chicago 14, Ill.

1. *The Migrations of Medieval Peoples*, A 381-9 (46 fr.).
2. *Feudalism*, A 381-10 (56 fr.).
3. *The Medieval Church*, A 381-11 (43 fr.).
4. *Medieval Towns and Cities*, A 381-12 (43 fr.).

*How Strong is Russia Now?* 56 fr. Black and white. Sale. Office of Educational Activities, The N. Y. Times, 229 West 43 Street, New York 36, N. Y. Takes up the Khrushchev regime, upheavals in the Kremlin, unrest in the Soviet Satellites. It deals with the challenge of Russia's sputniks, Soviet expansionist aims, relations between the U. S. and Russia.

*The Union of South Africa: The Other U.S.A.* 48 fr. Color. Sale. Audio-Visual Associates, Box 243, Bronxville, N. Y. Depicts people, customs, and life in South Africa.

*Heroes of Greek Mythology.* Set of 6 filmstrips. Color. 35 fr. each. Jam Handy Organization, 2821 E. Grand Blvd., Detroit,

11, Mich. Shows in detail influence of Greek hero legends on English literature.

1. *Ulysses in the Cave of the Cyclops* . . . 35 fr. each.
2. *Jason and the Golden Fleece* . . . 35 fr.
3. *Golden Apples of Hesperides* . . . 35 fr.
4. *Orpheus and Eurydice* . . . 35 fr.
5. *Pegasus and Bellerophon* . . . 35 fr.
6. *Daedalus and Icarus* . . . 35 fr.

*World's Great Religion Series.* Set of 6 filmstrips. Color. Sale. Life Filmstrips, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, N. Y. 20, N. Y. Depicted in well-planned and scholarly fashion is this array of the religions of the world.

1. *Hinduism* . . . 77 fr.
2. *Buddhism* . . . 70 fr.
3. *Confucianism and Taoism*, 64 fr.
4. *Islam* . . . 79 fr.
5. *Judaism* . . . 75 fr.
6. *Christianity* . . . 88 fr.

#### CORRECTION

*Alaska—The 49th State—In Pictures* published by Sterling Publishing Co., 419 Fourth Ave., New York 16, N. Y., was listed in error as free material in our November issue. The price should have been \$1.00 per copy.

## Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

*The Heritage of the Past.* By Stewart C. Easton. New York: Rinehart and Company, 1957. Pp. xx, 845. Alternate Edition. \$7.90.

This book is an alternate edition of the book with the same title which first appeared in 1955. This edition describes the development of western civilization to 1715 whereas the original edition took the account of that development only to the close of the Middle Ages. In preparing this edition Professor Easton omitted materials on the Far East which had been included in the original volume and rewrote the chapters on the an-

cient Near Eastern civilization, Ancient Greece and Rome as well as preparing seven new chapters on the early modern period. Both editions are approximately the same length; both are designed for the first semester of the survey course in the History of Western Civilization; both can be used independently of any other textbook or with Rinehart's companion volume, Brace's *The Making of the Modern World*.

This book is a joy to the instructor who has been searching for a textbook in this field which is more than a catalogue of facts. The book challenges the student. It presents



materials in such a way as to stimulate thought about a period or a personality, to provoke classroom discussion, to encourage a comparison of a past era with the present. It is a mine which contains many valuable veins for exploitation by instructor and student. Professor Easton is not satisfied to bring his work down to what is regarded as the student level. His book will require some mental exertion on the part of the undergraduate. It is a challenge to growth. An instructor must understand this characteristic of the book when he adopts it for some students will complain of its "difficulty." He may find it necessary to select certain sections for careful study by his students; other passages may be given more casual treatment in order to meet the requirements of a class schedule. Visually the book is appealing. Illustrations were selected for their relationship to the text; maps were specially drawn by Vincent Kotschar in consultation with the author. Each chapter ends with a section on suggestions for additional reading; this is not a list of standard secondary books but rather a brief essay which contains a succinct description of various types of books including reputable paperbacks and collections of source materials which will be of real assistance to the inquiring student. This textbook is a superior work; it should be widely adopted.

MAHLON H. HELLERICH

The State Teachers College  
Towson, Maryland

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*History in a Changing World.* By Geoffrey Barraclough. Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1956. Pp. viii, 246. \$4.00.

"The European inheritance is a tangle of unresolved contradictions, a thicket of dead ends, offering no direct line of advance," writes Geoffrey Barraclough in *History in a Changing World*. Barraclough, who succeeded Arnold Toynbee as research professor of International History in the University of London, writes because he feels that a revision of historical thought is again neces-

sary. He is concerned because most history being taught is still European centered, even though the Europe of our history books is dead and Europe is on the defensive. The author points to the recent war where two non-European powers fought in Europe to decide the vital issues of Europe's future. The emergence of these outside powers to positions of dominance makes the revision of European-centered history necessary. The new view also must take into account the rise of Asian nations which until recently could be viewed as subject to European powers.

Barraclough does not attempt to propound a theory, nor claim originality for the stimulating viewpoints included in this book, yet he hopes that other historians may be encouraged by his work to give balance to the teaching and writing of history. Only when thus balanced will history be significant to laymen. He claims that the average man finds the study of history unrewarding and turns away from it in disgust. Barraclough feels that the historian has failed because he shirks the question of meaning in history and writes on such specialized topics that only fellow historians can read his work with understanding. He points out that if the professional historian will not accept the task of interpreting the past, amateurs will. While disagreeing with some of Toynbee's conclusions, Barraclough admires him for doing what has long been necessary. He thinks comparative studies of civilization are significant because they revive the concept of universal history.

Barraclough fears that the objectivity of historians has resulted in a relativism which fails to measure right and wrong. Too many historians put the premium on culture as though it were the essence rather than the refinement of civilization. In doing so they neglect what really matters in a civilization, its moral values. Is the historian to be disinterested, he asks. Moral dispassionateness is unreal. "Historians," he writes, "who refuse to judge, 'do not succeed in refraining from judgment. They simply succeed in con-

cealing from themselves the principles upon which their judgment is based.'"

The lessons of history are not to be learned from recent history only, cites Barraclough, for there are many things at great distance from us that can have contemporary relevance. Each period has something important to tell us. It is important for us to know what has survived, but it can be just as important to know what did not survive and why. Even though we live in a period of change different from that of the past, it can be rewarding to study earlier periods of change. But, Barraclough cautions, the historian must avoid picking out of history *only* that which enlightens the present, for the purpose of history is not to *pick out* lessons, but when they are found they should be used. For him, "All history has to show is a rise and fall, an upward surge, a grappling with problems, an exhaustion, and a slow, steady decline, a stiffening of the fibres of society after the dying down of creative forces."

To know what it is all about, we must view history comparatively. We must break away from fragmentation and teach history as a whole. Barraclough wishes we could get away from categorizing periods. He suggests that the misleading names we give periods of history be avoided; and, if necessary to break down history, that we study history in these units: prehistory to 800 or 900 A.D.; 900 to 1300; 1300 to 1789; and 1789 to the present.

Historians must separate the big facts from the little ones. They must remember that few of their students or readers are going to be professional historians. They must help the layman understand this changing world by explaining that many factors we claim as unique to Western Civilization are found in all civilizations, and not consistently in European. They must take Byzantium into account as an equal heir of the Roman legacy. They must review their thinking about the balance of power systems, which Barraclough says became extinct in 1939. And, writes the author to his

European readers, a revised view of history is necessary since the connection of Europe with the wide world is the decisive factor for Europeans today.

In this timely book of essays Barraclough succeeds in stimulating the reader to probe deeper into universal history in search of meaning for all time.

WILLIAM E. MILLER

Henry High School  
Minneapolis, Minnesota

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*American Civilization: A History of the United States.* By Wesley M. Gewehr. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957. Pp. xxx, 587. \$6.75.

*New Frontiers of Knowledge.*

A Symposium by Distinguished Writers, Scholars and Public Figures. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1957. Pp. 125. \$2.75.

*India and the United Nations.* Report of a Study Group set up by the Indian Council of World Affairs. New York: Manhattan Publishing Company, 1957. Pp. ix, 229. \$3.00.

*Southern Race Progress.* By Thomas J. Woofter. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1957. Pp. 177. \$3.50.

Professor Woofter has made an inestimable contribution in his *Southern Race Progress*, a rather abbreviated work which both the scholar and the layman will appreciate. It reflects not only the author's interest as a student but as a native of the South who has been vitally concerned with Southern race relations for at least the last forty years. The scholar will recognize that the book is not intended to be a heavily documented analysis of the racial problem but is rather an autobiographical assessment—and as such is charming and full of insight. The layman will be even more pleased for the book will give him a rather thorough understanding of Southern race relations—from the past to the present. Both scholar and layman alike will particularly enjoy the modesty and moderation which accompanies Professor Woofter's considerable erudition.

*Southern Race Progress* touches upon all phases of race relations in the South, historically and contemporarily: culture, education, law, sharecropping, economic security, armed forces and most importantly, segregation. Although segregation is discussed throughout the book, the kernel of the problem is to be found in the last five chapters which deal with the inequities of Southern education, the rise of the demagogue, voluntary and involuntary segregation, the fact and fantasy of racial differences, and cooperation as the way to harmony.

Perhaps a summary of Professor Woof-ter's beliefs can best be seen in these points found in the author's preface: "... 1. As the Negro progresses the South progresses, and vice versa. Their fortunes are inextricably intertwined. 2. A mutually acceptable basis for cooperation is essential to progress. Fortunately the area of cooperation is already wide, and though it may be temporarily obscured by controversy, it is enduring. 3. If left to its own devices the South will progress but slowly in the development of the Negro, hence the value of an occasional application of the needle of criticism to puncture complacency. 4. In this situation, the average American needs to be less concerned with whether this or that action conforms to Supreme Court rulings and more concerned with whether it squares with the principles of the Supreme Ruler of the Universe. . ."

*Southern Race Progress* might well serve as required reading in the American classroom, at both the secondary and college level.

MARTIN L. FAUSOLD

State University of New York  
State Teachers College at Cortland

*Economic Fictions*. By Paul K. Crosser. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. xxiii, 322. \$4.75.

The reviewer, in his humble opinion, belongs to the school of the social scientists who feel that the field of economics is the least scientific of all contemporary social sciences. Subjectively, therefore, he has enjoyed this academic blast against "the epistemological and methodological attack on the classical

school of political economy by the subjectivistic economic theorizers" (Menger, Wieser, Boehm-Bawerk, Clark, Jevons, Schumpeter, Keynes and Spann) which "stop short of the conceptual . . ." (p. xv). The criticism is divided into four parts: (1) the Rise of Economic Subjectivism; (2) The Climax of Economic Subjectivism; (3) The Anti-Climax of Economic Subjectivism; and (4) The Anti-Anti-Climax of Economic Subjectivism. Roughly speaking, Crosser has been trying to apply to the field of economics what the sociologists and semanticists have done to the Philosophy of "as if." Especially valuable are the sections dealing with Keynes, since his theories have been so influential in Great Britain and in America (and especially on President Roosevelt).

Not easy reading at all, but a penetrating analysis of the economic concepts which are bound to disturb all teachers of economics!

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport  
Bridgeport, Connecticut

*Fear: Contagion and Conquest*. By James Clark Moloney. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. xiv, 140. \$3.75.

A psychoanalyst here argues the thesis that emotionally mature adults develop only as a result of relaxed, loving "mothering" in the first three to five years of life. Fear is regarded as "contagious," transmitted to children, even in the fetal state, both by mothers who experience normal fear and by those who experience neurotic fear. In the infant, the fear becomes neurotic, whatever its source in the mother. Colic is the characteristic reaction of the neurotic infant, a somatic expression of angry loneliness, resulting from "the indigestibility of the maternal climate"; conjunctivitis, sinusitis, asthma, eczema, etc. are the neurotic adult's equivalents of colic. "Four mothering" patterns are discussed: (1) mothers in a healthy culture produce emotionally healthy children, (2) mothers in an unhealthy culture produce neurotic children, (3) healthy mothers in an unhealthy culture or a culture strange to them produce neurotic children, (4) unheal-



thy mothers transferred to a healthy culture produce healthy children. Examples of the first are the Chinese and the Ryukyuan Okinawans, both of them emotionally mature and culturally adapted peoples. Examples of the second are the Japanese, "rigid characters," anxiety-ridden in an authoritarian culture. Examples of the third are the Orthodox Jews, good mothers but living in a hostile Gentile world; the Cantonese Chinese who migrated to the forbidding west coast culture of the United States; and the Okinawans who migrated to Hawaii, where they were rejected by the Japanese. Examples of the fourth are Jewish mothers reared in the hostile environments of Europe and the United States who have migrated to the accepting, confident, and integrated environment of the new nation of Israel. The author states that the proportion of mentally healthy women in our culture constantly diminishes, and criticizes career women as mothers, but maybe we can save ourselves "if we can mobilize sufficient knowledge and action to counterbalance the adverse aspects of cultural trends as they are happening." He specifies neither the trends nor the means of mobilizing against them.

In spite of the technical nature of this psychoanalytic thesis, it is clearly and economically argued. The evidence is varied and wide-ranging, but some of it appears a bit shaky. And the American Negroes are not even mentioned in the book, although they clearly constitute one of the most promising and available groups for an extensive study of the question.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College  
Frederick, Maryland

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*The Big Change in Europe.* By Blair Bolles.  
New York: W. W. Norton & Company,  
1958. Pp. xxi, 527. \$5.95.

Under the impact of the East-West rivalry, a new Europe is emerging from the ashes of World War II, far different from the one that existed a generation or even a decade ago. That is the conclusion of Mr. Blair

Bolles, whose interesting survey of contemporary Europe is based on personal observation as well as on a comprehensive knowledge of European history. He has served with distinction both as head of the Foreign Policy Association bureau in Washington and as European correspondent for the *Toledo Blade*.

This new Europe, according to the author, is "modeling its life after life in the United States . . . (it) is approaching a union of its many states, and is in the midst of a new renaissance." (p. 3). To illustrate these profound changes, he summarizes European history since the death of Stalin in 1953. After making some striking comparisons between life in eastern and western Europe — "Russian-Europe" versus "American-Europe" — he traces the developments in each of the individual countries in terms of their leaders. He devotes most space to an analysis of the German Federal Republic, which he regards as the pivotal state of Europe, whose leader, Konrad Adenauer, is a most outspoken advocate of European unity.

The author graphically describes the amazing economic recovery of western Europe, which he attributes to generous American assistance and, to a considerable degree, to the widespread adoption of American economic practices. What is even more important, he relates the fascinating story of how European leaders, in their desire to check Soviet expansion, were willing to relinquish their old concepts of national sovereignty in the interest of closer political affiliation. In addition to N.A.T.O. and the Council of Europe, their efforts have resulted in the establishment of the coal and steel community, a common pool for the development of atomic energy, and in the adoption of a common market.

Mr. Bolles believes that Americans can take justifiable pride for their part in the creation of the new Europe. In furnishing guidance to the new Europe, however, they have not been so successful. The Eisenhower administration, for example, has repeatedly

failed to provide inspiring leadership to Europe's striving for economic and political unity. Mr. Dulles, in particular, is severely criticized for his excessive emphasis on military strength.

For anyone who is eager to obtain a deeper insight into the Europe of today, this readable and stimulating book can be highly recommended.

RICHARD H. BAUER

University of Maryland  
College Park, Maryland

*A History of Sino-Russian Relations.* By Tien-fong Cheng. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1957. Pp. viii, 389. \$6.00.

The complete conquest of Asia has been a basic objective of Russian foreign policy since the middle of the sixteenth century. After enterprising traders of Novgorod had penetrated into western Siberia and established a successful and thriving fur trade, the Tsars of Muscovy began to concentrate upon territorial expansion. In 1563, Russia had expanded to the Urals and had added the Khanite of Sibir to her possessions. By 1648 the empire of the Tsars included that vast territory which extended from the Urals to the Pacific, a total area of four and a half million square miles.

The Tsars next turned their attention to the region of the Amur River and thus came into conflict with the Manchu rulers of China. According to Tien-fong Cheng the ensuing years of Sino-Russian relations recorded a period of imperialistic expansion, border warfare, deceitful and dishonorable diplomacy whereby treaties and agreements were either scorned or violated. From 1858 to 1917, Russia's conquests were furthered by the seizure of the Amur and Ussuri regions, the spreading of her influence into Manchuria and Sinkiang, and the establishment of a protectorate in Outer Mongolia. All of this occurred prior to the outbreak of the Russian Revolution of 1917.

After the Revolution, the Bolshevistic regime of Lenin continued the imperialistic policies of the Tsars but added to them more

effective and treacherous tactics. The communization of China began in 1919 when the revolutionary tide in China was also rising. A strong Communist party was organized in each province and the work of subversion began before the Chinese revolt of Dr. Sun Yat-sen could take full effect. Likewise the Communists controlled a decisive and forceful minority in the Koumintang. Key members of the party held positions of influence, power and responsibility in every department of China's republican government. The loyalty of these men was always directed toward Moscow rather than to the policies of Dr. Sun Yat-sen.

The successes of the Communists in China were supported by the complete cooperation of the Soviet ambassador, ministers and consuls. In Outer Mongolia and Sinkiang, Russian soldiers actually participated in Communist uprisings. When in 1928 Chiang Kai-shek was putting down the War Lords in northern China, Communist-inspired officers of his own army were insidiously attempting to destroy his government in central and east China.

After defeating the War Lords Chiang Kai-shek turned his attention toward the annihilation of the Communists. He was on the brink of success but the Mukden Incident of 1931 and the Sino-Japanese War of 1937-1945 saved the Communists. From that time the doom of China was sealed and the way was prepared for the retreat to Formosa.

Tien-fong Cheng has written a detailed and intimate account of China's collapse. Part of the material is based upon long years of observation. Much of it stems from personal experience and observation. Despite his personal convictions as a Nationalist and his ardent loyalty to Chiang Kai-shek, his study is one that bears the characteristics of an objective and impartial history.

While he points out, only too clearly, the treachery of Soviet diplomacy he doesn't excuse China's western friend, the United States, for helping to place that nation on the road to Formosa. He deplored General Stilwell's support of the Chinese Communists

during World War II but he approved the sympathetic view of General Hurley in his report to President Roosevelt when he wrote, "if you sustain Stilwell in this controversy you will lose Chiang Kai-shek and China with him." Stilwell was removed but later when Roosevelt acquiesced to Stalin at Yalta the necessary stimulus was provided for the Communists, backed by Russia, to carry through the rape of the Chinese mainland.

Although this book is commendable as an authoritative study on Chinese-Russian relations, it is lacking in maps, charts and tables. Such an omission should be corrected in future editions.

WILLIAM HUNTER SHANNON

Catonsville High School  
Catonsville, Maryland

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*Crisis in Higher Education.* By Charles P. Hogarth. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1957. Pp. 60. \$1.00.

One may anticipate a minor deluge of treatises on "the crisis in education" in the next few years. The little volume reviewed here, written by the President of Mississippi State College for Women, is one of the first in the series. Probably most of the forthcoming books will be classifiable as either mainly expository or mainly hortatory. This one seems to fall in the latter category.

The crisis in education is subject to a variety of definitions; Dr. Hogarth has chosen to define it as an essentially financial crisis. As he sees it, the problem is: How do we raise twenty-three billion dollars over and above current expenditures in the next fourteen years to provide for a projected college enrollment double that of 1957? Dr. Hogarth's solution is in the tradition of conservative American values. It is two-fold. There must be, first, a concerted effort to awaken public interest and to promote public pressure on private sources of income and on the state legislatures. (His attitude toward federal aid is cautious and reluctant if, indeed, not antipathetic). Secondly, there must be careful, long-range planning by college administrators in which all of the pragmatic

virtues are fully exercised. Few will quarrel with Dr. Hogarth's suggestions except that on federal aid, but many will find their scope and the degree of their imaginativeness incommensurate with the magnitude of the Crisis. Other aspects of the Crisis, for instance the problem of maintaining high quality instruction in the face of rising enrollments and proportionally smaller numbers of competent instructors, are given scant attention or none at all.

The bulk of this volume, contrary to the implication of the title, consists of a miscellany of observations on such diverse matters as the care of college plant and equipment, recruitment of instructors, purposes of education, campus life and an assortment of tips for parents and prospective college students. Unfortunately, most of these observations are so obvious and trite, even taken in context, that they can be of little value to the college-educated public much less to the professional educator. For example, "College buildings should be constructed of materials that will last perhaps fifty years." "Students enjoy social life while they attend college. Dating is a big favorite," or "The total load on a given student should not be too heavy for his health and ability." One must sum up, regrettably that if this book has any merit, it is as a rather inadequate glimpse of American colleges for the non-college-educated public.

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*Cultural Foundations of Industrial Civilization.* By John U. Nef. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1958. Pp. xv, 162. \$4.00.

The influence of industrialism and technology on human history is of basic importance, and the ideologies derived therefrom, especially Marxism, have shaken the world culture to its very foundations. Nef's thesis, that the origins of industrialism have to be sought in history as a whole, and that man's concern for truth, goodness and beauty has



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done as much to produce the modern world as economic institutions and natural resources, is handled with his well-known skill and competency. He discusses the new methods of scientific inquiry first apparent towards the end of the 16th century (with stress on quantitative measurement, objective observation, and advances in mathematical thought as the only sound basis for the study of natural phenomena), together with the related historical developments: how base ores and minerals were being exploited to a greater degree than ever before in the north of Europe and in Great Britain, while the rest of Europe was concerned primarily with the improvement of the quality of industrial products. He then deals with new styles of architecture and how ecclesiastical and constitutional history reached a decisive stage. Then he draws the strand together and demonstrates how the changes were a result, essentially, of a new scale of values: utility became an end to be pursued; violence gave way to toleration; the virtue of charity

gained a new emphasis; the 18th century concept of civilization took shape. He ends on a religious note: "The methods of science and technology and economics provide no key to divinity. Industrial man is not a god; . . . We must find man again. That is the only way we can hope to lead him to God" (p. 155).

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**ARTICLES**

"The Lesson of Khrushchev's Little Red School House," by Robert M. Hutchins, *Esquire*, June, 1958.

"How to Secure and Retain Good Teachers," by Clyde M. Hill, *National School Boards Association*, Chicago, Illinois, April, 1958.

"Industry's Changing Needs for People and Skills," by David H. Dawson, *National Congress of Parents and Teachers*, Omaha, Nebraska, May 19, 1958.

## PAMPHLETS

"The Birthplace of Our Nation. Its Charm, Its Progress, Its Traditions," *Holiday*, May, 1957. Excellent for display purposes on classroom bulletin Boards.

"Khrushchev's Purge," by Harry Schwartz, *New York Times Magazine*, July 14, 1957.

"Zhukov: Real Boss of the Kremlin," by H. V. Kaltenborn. *Parade*, August 18, 1957.

"The Education Really Needed for a Changing World," by Arthur Bestor. *Harvard Educational Review*, Winter 1957.

"How Far Have the Book Burners Gone?" by Thorwald Esbensen. *The School Executive*, LXXVI, (May 1957).

*Increasing the Wealth of Nations, The Quest for Economic Development*. By Celbert Lauterbach, Public Affairs Press, 419 New Jersey Avenue S. E. Washington 3, D. C.

Rinehart and Company, 232 Madison Avenue, New York 16, New York, have prepared the following Source Problems in World Civilization. *Hammurapi's Code; Quaint or Forward-Looking?* By Cyrus H. Gordon. *The Ottoman Empire, Was It a Sick Man of Europe?* By L. S. Stavrianos.

## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

*History of the Kings of Britain*. By Geoffrey of Monmouth. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1958. Pp. xii, 281. Paper Bound \$1.00.

*The Process of Intuition*. By Virginia Beerden. New York: Greenwich Book Publishers, 1957. Pp. x, 70. \$2.50.

*Peace Through War Insurance*. By Helen Ames Leete. New York: Vantage Press, 1958. Pp. vi, 99. \$2.75.

*Labor Economics and Industrial Relations*. By Robert D. Leiter. New York: Barnes and Noble, 1958. Pp. xix, \$1.95.

*Psychology in Juvenile and Adult Crime*. By Leland R. Townsend. New York: Greenwich Book Publishers, 1958. Pp. viii, \$2.50.

*Sociology*. By George A. Lundberg, Clarence C. Schrag and Otto N. Larsen. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958. Pp. xxi, 785. \$6.50. Revised Edition.

*Japan and the United Nations*. By National

Studies on International Organization. New York: Manhattan Publishing Company, 1958. Pp. xii, 246. \$3.00.

*Japan and her Destiny*. By Mamoru Shigemitsu. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1958. Pp. x, 392. \$6.50.

*Lenin on the Question of Nationality*. By Alfred D. Lou. New York: Bookman Associates, 1958. Pp. vii, 193. \$4.00.

*Economics, Science, and Production*. By Boris Monsaroff. New York: Vantage Press, 1958. Pp. ix, 196. \$3.00.

*Human Resources. The Wealth of a Nation*. By Eli Ginzberg. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1958. Pp. vii, 183. \$3.95.

*How America Won the Wars and Lost the Peace*. By Captain Charles Berman. New York: Vantage Press, 1958. Pp. xxiv, 188. \$3.50.

*Racial and Cultural Minorities. An Analysis of Prejudice and Discrimination*. By George Eaton Simpson and J. Milton Yinger. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958. Pp. xxiii, 881. \$7.50. Revised Edition.

*Philosophy of Education for Our Time*. By Frederick Mayer. New York: The Odyssey Press, 1958. Pp. xvi, 245. \$3.00.

*A Profile of Primitive Culture*. By Elman R. Service. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958. Pp. xx, 474. \$6.00.

*Systematic Sociology. An Introduction to the Study of Sociology*. By Karl Mannheim. Edited by J. S. Eros and W. A. C. Stewart. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. xii, 169. \$6.00.

*The Study of Society*. By Blaine E. Mercer and Robert K. Merton. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1958. Pp. xvi, 640. \$5.00.

*The Rise of Khrushchev*. By Myron Rush. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1958. Pp. ix, \$3.25.

*Modern Russia*. By John Long. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. v, 180. \$6.00.

*Not By Bread Alone*. By Vladimir Dudintsev. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1958. Pp. 512. \$4.95. The Novel that Rocked the Soviet Union.

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